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THE *Southwestern*
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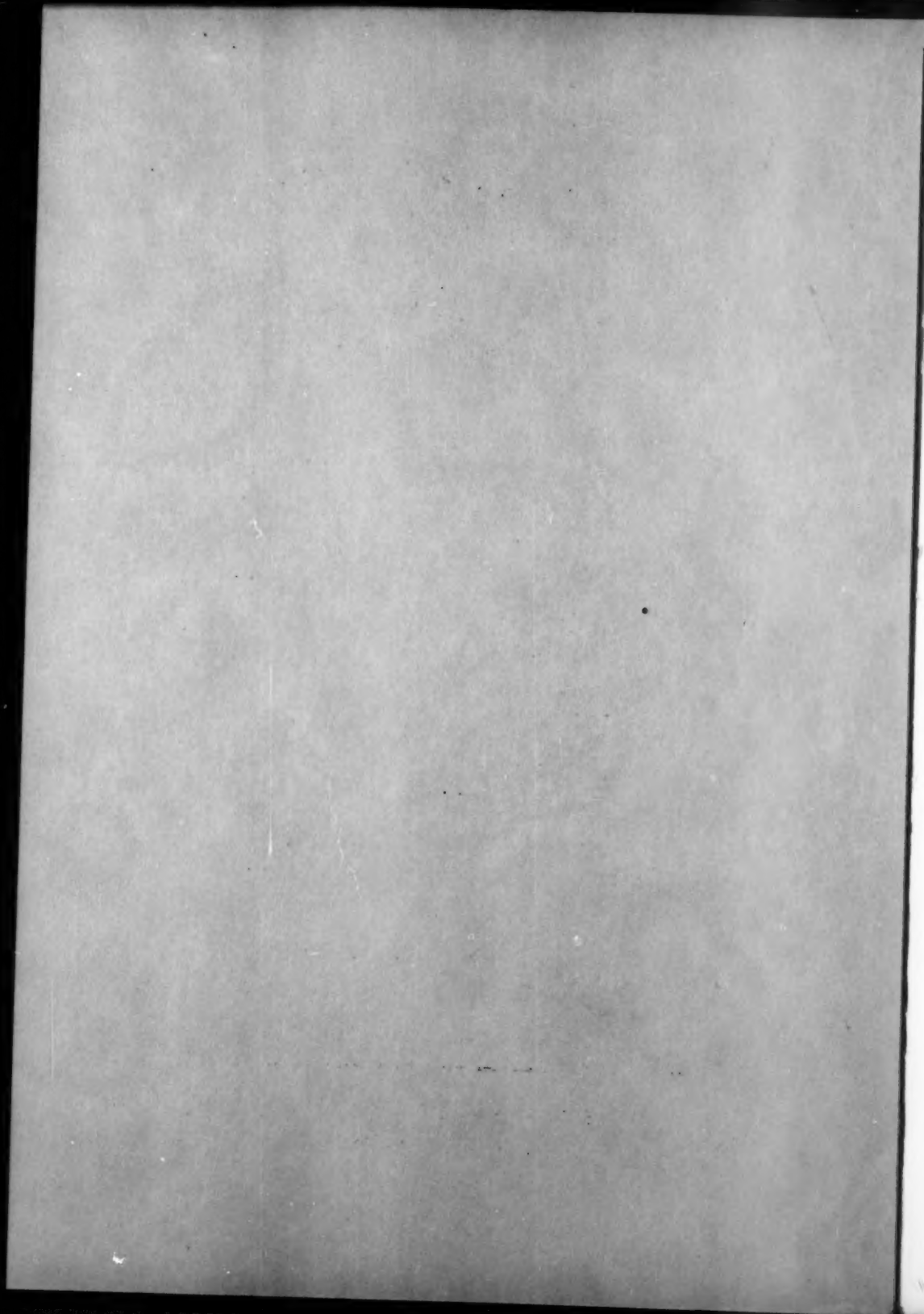
Economic-Welfare Theories and Policy Criteria

JOHN E. PEARSON

Social Ethics and Economic Science

WILLIAM L. HEUSER

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Irrigation Patterns in Texas

LORRIN KENNAMER
UNIVERSITY OF TEXAS

IRRIGATION HAS BEEN PRACTICED IN TEXAS for at least four hundred years. Coronado reported that Indians were irrigating crops near the present city of El Paso when he was in that area in 1541, and there is archeological evidence that irrigation existed long before this in several valleys of the Trans-Pecos region. The first Europeans to practice irrigation in Texas were the Franciscan fathers, who early in the eighteenth century supervised the construction of canals as a source of water for domestic needs and for irrigation. The Spaniard, whose point of view was conditioned by the arid and semiarid country from which he came, accepted irrigation as a natural way of life in Spanish Texas. It was not until 1853, however, that Anglo-Americans began to develop agricultural irrigation, with their first attempts near the present town of Balmorhea, still a center of irrigation. From there, irrigation on a large scale spread to the Rio Grande Valley and slowly to other parts of the state.

It is only in the past fifteen years that irrigation has become a vitally important factor in Texas agriculture. Acres under irrigation have increased from approximately 1,000,000 acres in 1940 to approximately 7,000,000 acres today. The greatest growth has taken place since 1950.

To illustrate the importance of irrigation: in 1956, a year of severe drought, about one-third of all cropland harvested in the state was from irrigated lands and this represented about two-thirds of the state's income from harvested crops. According to the Agricultural Marketing Service, total acreage from which all crops were harvested in Texas during 1957—not a drouth year—numbered about 24,100,000 acres, and irrigated acreage represented about 30 per cent of this total.

General Patterns

In 1957, the most recent year of a state-wide survey of irrigation, only 10 of the total 254 counties had no reported irrigated acreage. Of the 244 counties with irrigation, 17 reported more than 100,000 acres each, and 13

NOTE.—The author wishes to acknowledge his gratitude to the University of Texas Research Institute for partial subsidy of the study upon which this article is based.

reported from 50,000 to 100,000 acres each.¹ In all regions of the state irrigation of varying degree was taking place. Map 1, showing the distribution of irrigated acreage, indicates how widespread the practice is. The 10 counties without irrigation are scattered from east to west, without any definite pattern of concentration.

To illustrate the growth and spread of irrigation, the history of the 17 counties leading in this practice in 1957 (Bailey, Cameron, Castro, Crosby, Deaf Smith, Floyd, Hale, Hidalgo, Hockley, Lamb, Lubbock, Parmer, Pecos, Reeves, Swisher, Terry, Wharton) is projected back to 1944. In 1944 only 3 of these counties—Cameron, Hale, Hidalgo—had more than 100,000 acres irrigated. Of these, two are in the oldest region of intensive irrigation, the Lower Valley of the Rio Grande, and one is on the High Plains, the outstanding region today. In 1949 there were 8 counties with more than 100,000 acres irrigated; by 1954 the number had grown to 12. State totals of irrigated acres for these years in round numbers were: 1944—1,000,000; 1949—3,100,000; 1954—4,700,000; and 1957—7,000,000.² Table 1 gives a more detailed statistical picture of irrigation in the state in 1957.

TABLE 1

Irrigation Survey State Totals, 1957

Total number acres irrigated	6,962,234
Number irrigated farms	39,706
Acres irrigated by gravity	6,383,855
Acres irrigated by sprinkling	577,015
Number sprinkler systems	6,748
Number irrigation wells	54,994
Acres irrigated from ground water	5,820,192

Source: R. V. Thurmond, *Distribution of Irrigated Acres in Texas, 1957*, Leaflet 364, Texas Agricultural Extension Service, 1958.

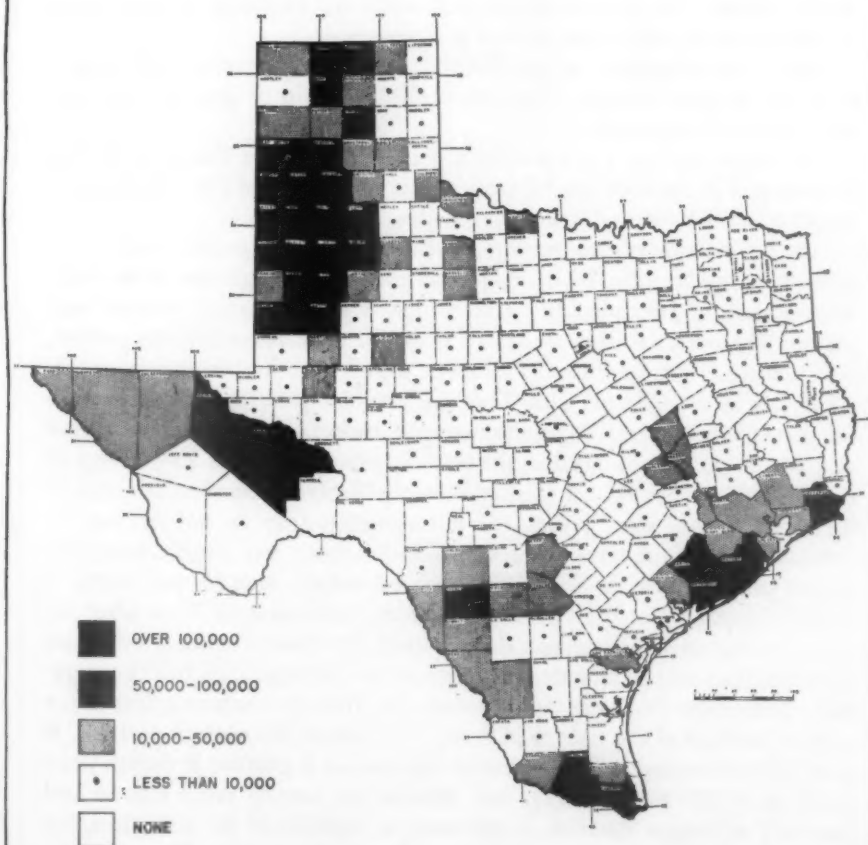
It should be noted that this rapid growth has not been the result of large-scale public or private commercial enterprises or organizations but has developed in the main from individual development on farms. Irrigation enterprises, public and private, are serving increasingly greater areas, but the proportion to total irrigated acreage has greatly declined in the past fifteen years owing mainly to the rapid expansion of irrigation from privately-owned wells in the High Plains region.

Even though irrigation is found throughout the state, the major areas of

¹ R. V. Thurmond, *Distribution of Irrigated Acres in Texas, 1957*, Leaflet 364, Texas Agricultural Extension Service, 1958.

² U.S. Census of Agriculture, 1957, *Irrigation Survey*, Texas Agricultural Extension Service; Texas Water Resources Planning, *Progress Report*, Austin, Board of Water Engineers, December, 1958.

DISTRIBUTION OF IRRIGATED ACRES IN TEXAS 1957



SOURCE - LEAFLET L-364 TEXAS A & M COLLEGE

concentration, with the exception of the rice-growing region of the Upper Gulf Coast, are in the portions of the state where the annual rainfall is less than 25 inches. It should be no surprise, then, that of the 7,000,000 acres irrigated in 1957, approximately 6,000,000 were irrigated with underground water.

During 1957 the estimated water used for irrigation approached 12,500,000 acre-feet. Of this quantity approximately 9,600,000 acre-feet was obtained from groundwater supplies and 2,900,000 acre-feet from surface water.³ The present use of fresh water for irrigation requires about 81 per cent of the total amount used in Texas.

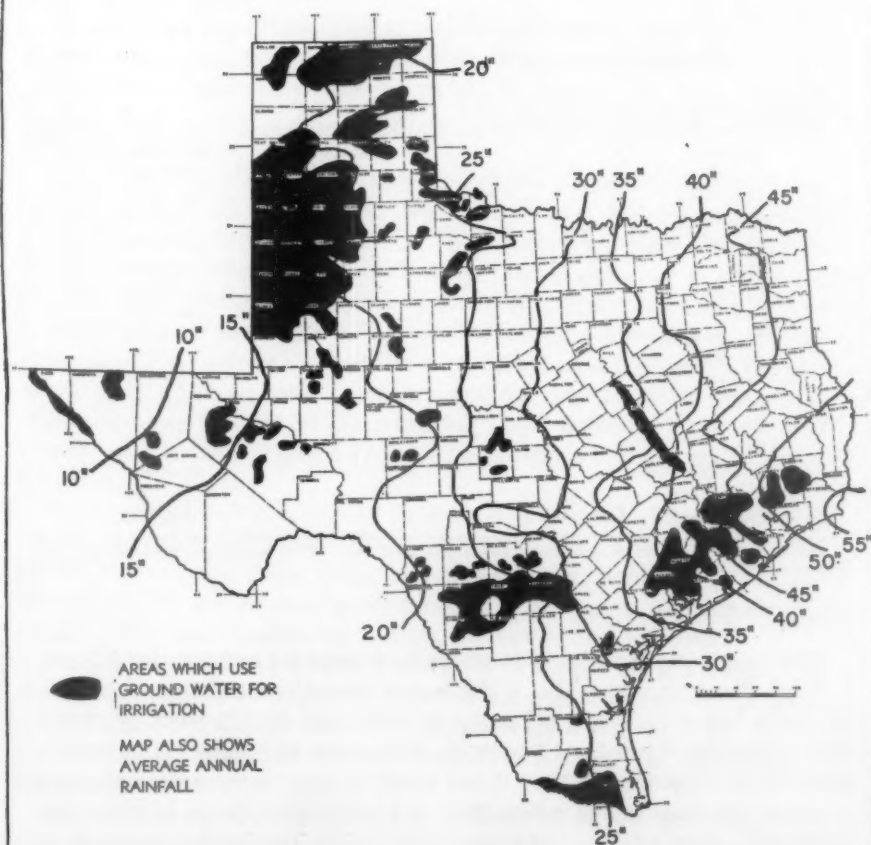
Map 2, showing areas of ground water used for irrigation, and Map 1, showing irrigated acreage, illustrate the relationship of ground-water use and extensive irrigation.

The major areas of surface-water use are in the Lower Valley of the Rio Grande and in the Gulf coastal area. About 50 per cent of the surface-water irrigation of the state is in the Lower Valley.

Any explanation of this predominant dependence on ground water must take into consideration the drainage and precipitation patterns of the state. The amount of precipitation varies widely with geographic position and season. The isohyetal lines on Map 2 show the general north-south pattern, which ranges from less than 10 inches in the extreme west to approximately 55 inches in the extreme east. This precipitation pattern, considered with the general west-to-east sloping topography, makes it clear that about 75 per cent of the runoff produced in the state originates on about 25 per cent of the land area. This has led Walter Prescott Webb to describe the rivers of Texas as "wrong-way" rivers, for unfortunately they do not deliver the surplus water of the state to the moisture-deficient areas. Furthermore, the region with the most moisture has the fewest suitable sites for reservoirs; in terms of topography, the central and southwestern areas of Texas offer the best potential sites for reservoir development. But these locations, with their subhumid to semiarid climate, are subject to the highest losses from evaporation. Tests show that evaporation losses vary from as much as 3 feet in the eastern portions of the state to as much as 10 feet in the western portions. It goes without saying that the potential evaporation is greatest in drouth years (such as 1910, 1934, 1953), and drouths are usually more intense and generally of longer duration in the western portions of the state. Imagine what the potential evaporation must have been at Imperial, in Pecos County, when the total precipitation for 1953 was only 1.95 inches! At the other

³ Texas Board of Water Engineers, *Texas Water Resources Planning, Progress Report* (December, 1958), p. 83.

AREAS OF GROUND WATER USE IN TEXAS, 1957



SOURCE - BOARD OF WATER ENGINEERS, 1956

extreme, only seven years before at Anahuac (Chambers County) in eastern Texas the annual precipitation was 98.08 inches.

Irrigated Crops

Almost every type of crop grown in Texas is under irrigation in some part of the state. As would be expected, irrigation has improved yields per acre, even where rainfall is fairly adequate. The major crops by acreage in 1957, shown in Table 2, were grain sorghum, cotton (these two nearly equal), wheat, and rice.

TABLE 2

Irrigated Acreage of Major Crops, 1957

Cotton	2,173,497
Grain sorghum	2,279,239
Field corn	117,893
Sweet corn	7,512
Wheat	645,696
Oats	93,863
Barley	54,950
Rice	427,703
Forage sorghum	68,740
Alfalfa	156,777
Peanuts	27,115
Pastures	279,587
Orchards	83,647
Pecans	3,796
Sweet potatoes	2,437
Vegetables	288,746
Other crops	299,574

Source: R. V. Thurmond, *Distribution of Irrigated Acres in Texas, 1957*, Leaflet 364, Texas Agricultural Extension Service, 1958.

Major Irrigated Regions

The major irrigated regions in which these crops are concentrated follow:
High Plains region.—This is the largest ground-water irrigated area of Texas. It had 8,356 wells operating in 1948, and 42,225 wells in 1957.⁴ This region has 12 of the 17 counties in the state with more than 100,000 acres under irrigation. In 1957 it had nearly as many acres under irrigation as there had been in the entire state in 1954 (High Plains in 1957 was 4,568,880; state total in 1954 was 4,706,017). The leading counties in irrigated acreage are Hale (500,000), Lubbock (350,000), Castro, Lamb, Swisher, Parmer, and Floyd. Lamb County is a good example of the rapidity

⁴ D. W. Sherrill, *High Plains Irrigation Survey*, Texas Agricultural Extension Service (June, 1957).

with which irrigation has expanded in the High Plains. This county had approximately 26,000 acres under irrigation in 1944 and approximately 350,000 acres by 1957. The major crops in order of total acreage in 1957 were grain sorghum, cotton, wheat, corn, and vegetables. Cotton, wheat, and grain sorghum account for 90 per cent of the irrigated crops. This region furnishes more than half the irrigated cotton and almost all the irrigated wheat produced in the state. Farms range from about 20 acres on the outskirts of Lubbock, Amarillo, and Plainview to Panhandle wheat farms of 20,000 acres or more.

Coastal Plain rice area.—This area is devoted mainly to rice production, rotated with pasture, with some truck crops. Water comes partly from underground sources and partly from the rivers and streams that flow across the Coastal Plain to the Gulf. Principal counties are Brazoria, Jefferson, Wharton, Chambers, and Harris.

Lower Rio Grande Valley.—This agricultural region is irrigated mainly by surface water and is devoted to cotton, citrus fruits, and winter vegetable production. Once the organization of farms centered around citrus groves; it now centers around cotton. Ordinarily, double cropping is a common practice, with a summer crop, such as cotton or grain sorghum, followed by a winter crop of vegetables. Other double-cropping practices include the growing of two or three short-season crops on the same land within the year or the planting of an annual crop between the rows of young citrus trees during the development of the orchards. There is hardly any permanent pasture on the fully-irrigated farms. The principal counties are Hidalgo, Cameron, and Willacy.

Upper and Middle Rio Grande Valley.—The Upper Valley is devoted to cotton primarily, with some alfalfa and vegetables. The Middle Valley produces feedstuffs, truck crops, and some cotton. Both the Upper and Middle Valleys are irrigated predominantly by surface water from the Rio Grande. The main counties are El Paso, Hudspeth, and Maverick.

Pecos Valley region.—Counties in the Pecos River Valley, a tributary of the Rio Grande, irrigate mainly for cotton but produce some alfalfa, grain sorghum, and truck crops. The water supply is from both wells and surface supply from the Red Bluff Reservoir on the Pecos River. The main counties are Reeves and Pecos.

Winter Garden area.—This region, in south Texas near the Middle Rio Grande, produces spinach, onions, other truck crops, and some feedstuffs. The main counties are Zavala and Dimmit, with Uvalde County to the immediate north expanding irrigation acreage rapidly. This region is dependent mainly on ground water that originates on the Edwards Plateau to its north.

Problems in Irrigation

The development of the above regions and the rapid expansion of irrigation has not occurred without problems—problems which are growing in intensity. Excluding the economic aspects of farming as an occupation, the major problems are water supply, salinity, drainage, water waste, and the increasing cost of water. The problem of supply exists in both surface and ground-water operations. For example, the major problem in the use of Rio Grande water is the great fluctuation in the amount of water available from the river. During the wetter years there are problems from both surface drainage and subsurface drainage of the irrigated fields. The flat topography, lack of natural drainage channels, and extensive urban development intensify the drainage problem in the Lower Rio Grande Valley. These surface and subsurface drainage problems have proved largely incapable of solution through independent efforts of individual farmers or irrigation districts, according to a recent (1958) Joint Report of the U.S. Soil Conservation Service, the U.S. Bureau of Reclamation, and the Texas Board of Water Engineers.

The coast prairie also has drainage and concomitant problems to the extent that wet years limit farm operations, augment soil problems, and produce serious weed and insect problems.

The increasing salinity of the soil due to the content of irrigation water is a problem in the Lower Rio Grande Valley region. The increase in salinity has also become so severe in one area of northern Texas that irrigated acreage in Wichita County has declined more than 20,000 acres in the past fifteen years.

The High Plains region is confronted with the related problems of a lowering water table, deeper wells, decreased pumping rate, and lengthened pumping duration. All of these problems find expression in the rising cost of water for irrigated agriculture. In 1948 the over-all pumping capacity of wells was such that 74 per cent of the wells pumped at a rate of more than 700 gallons per minute. By 1957 only 56 per cent of the wells maintained this rate. Also in 1948, only 18 per cent of the wells required a lift of more than 125 feet; in 1957, 71 per cent did.⁵

The High Plains region is dependent for irrigation on the water trapped in the Ogallala reservoir, which underlies approximately 95 per cent of the region. Annual withdrawals from this reservoir exceed withdrawals for all other ground-water reservoirs in the state combined and greatly exceed the annual rate of recharge. The water level is declining steadily in the developed parts of this reservoir. It should be emphasized that the source of recharge for this reservoir is precipitation on the High Plains, *not* seepage from

⁵ *Ibid.*

outside the region.⁶ The actual recharge is from slight to almost negligible, for most of the precipitation either is consumed by plants or is lost through evaporation from depression lakes that form after significant rains.

Future Patterns

The single most-important problem in Texas irrigation is an adequate water supply. As stated earlier, about 6,000,000 of the 7,000,000 irrigated acres are supplied by ground water. A fact which cannot be ignored is that a substantial portion of this ground water is obtained from storage that is being progressively depleted. Consequently, a large part of the present agricultural income and production will be lost as ground-water supplies diminish, and it is clear that a major portion of the state's agricultural production from irrigation cannot be considered a permanent part of Texas agriculture.

What appears to be the irrigation pattern of Texas a few years hence? Will the present major regions of irrigation continue to expand? Will there be a growth of irrigation in other portions of the state? Let's review the major regions with these questions in mind:

High Plains.—Dependent on ground water that is diminishing in quantity and increasing in cost of obtaining.

Coastal rice area.—Drainage problems in wet years but no major problem of water supply.

Lower Rio Grande Valley.—Expansion of irrigation must depend on water provided from outside the area since existing facilities already furnish approximately the maximum supply available.

Pecos Valley area and El Paso area.—Surface-water irrigation development is limited by lack of water, with existing facilities already providing approximately the maximum waters obtainable. The ground-water development is subject to the problem of increasing salinity.

Winter Garden area.—Dependent on limited ground-water supplies and on the highly-fluctuating surface and ground-water movement into the region from the Edwards Plateau.

In regard to the potential areas of irrigation in the state, a recent (1957) report of the U.S. Bureau of Reclamation identifies the coastal area adjoining the Lower Nueces River Basin in the Corpus Christi area as the area of largest potential. This report, however, bases its statement on the proviso that water be imported from outside the region in the amount of 1,500,000 acre-feet per year.⁷

Areas of potential irrigation development which will not require the importation of water are the middle and lower valley alluviums of the Red,

⁶ *Water Developments and Potentialities of the State of Texas*, Sen. Doc. No. 111, 85th Cong., 2d Sess. (July, 1958), p. 31.

⁷ *Ibid.*, pp. 50-51.

Trinity, Brazos, Colorado, and Guadalupe Rivers—all in the more humid regions of the state.⁸

In the eastern portions of Texas new irrigation development is in progress, with scattered farm managers increasing their yields markedly through supplementary sprinkler-watering of fields that receive from 40 to 50 inches of rainfall yearly. Although rainfall in eastern Texas would normally be sufficient for the production of most crops, poor distribution during the growing season often results in dry periods which reduce yields and impair quality if supplemental irrigation is not available.

Conclusion

If future events are to be predicted upon the basis of present and past experiences, the prospect for a continuing expansion of irrigation is hardly encouraging. There is every reason to believe that the water resources cannot indefinitely sustain the present rate of use in the present areas of intensive irrigated production. New sources of water are necessary as well as new techniques for using it. The outlook is blackest in the areas that depend mainly upon ground water—notably in the High Plains, where ground water is overexploited already. Irrigation with surface water is equally unpromising in many places. Some of the major regions have expanded their irrigated acreage to such an extent that water shortages have already occurred. It seems that only a limited number of these shortages could be entirely relieved by the construction of new reservoirs.

Technical factors and cost factors indicate that the state cannot rely safely on the prospect of irrigating with processed sea water or with water from any other completely undeveloped source. Instead, Texas must base her plans upon the reality that her water resources are limited and subject to deterioration or depletion. The "water frontier" has been exploited. It now must join the company of other famous frontiers of the past.

⁸ *Irrigation Potential of Selected Areas in Texas*, U.S. Department of Interior, Bureau of Reclamation (May, 1957), pp. 196-198.

Civil Service Recruitment

Social-science students who have, or soon will have, completed a bachelor's degree are urged by the Civil Service Commission to take the general examination. This examination opens possibilities of appointment to positions in

varied departments of government service at salaries ranging from approximately \$4,000 per year upward, according to qualifications. Information and forms may be secured from post offices or from the Civil Service Commission.

The Detailman and Preference Behavior

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ALL OVER THE WORLD the practice of medicine has been transformed in the past two generations as a result of scientific and technological changes. These changes have been most prominent in Western culture, particularly in the United States, and one of the best indices is the development of drugs for medical practice. There is no other nation where pharmaceutical distribution has achieved such importance. This is not due primarily to the rise in the drug costs; this rise has lagged somewhat behind that of expendable income, whereas hospital costs have increased about four times as fast.¹ A much more important factor is the rapid shift to drugs dispensed only by prescription, the dollar volume of which rose from a trivial level (variously estimated from 3 to 8 per cent) in 1938 to roughly half the 1958 market. The full impact of this change in consumption pattern may be better understood by noting that during the period of greatest gain, the unit prices were tumbling; for example, one of the best-known drugs fell to less than 2 per cent of its original price within five years.

Drugs may be divided into three classes: crude drugs, biologicals, and synthetics. There are some disagreements as to exact boundaries, but in general crude drugs are extracted directly from plants or animals; biologicals are those indirectly derived, like serums; and synthetics are those which are compounded in a laboratory, whether their chemical structure is the same as something found in nature or quite different. It is owing almost entirely to the rapid expansion and increasing variety of synthetics, many of which are not duplicated in nature, that medical practice has been revolutionized insofar as it relates to the use of drugs.

Some production figures for one group—antibiotics—are shown in Table 1. There are some interesting facts associated with the figures in this table. Profits hit such a peak in 1951 that the 631 tons of medicinals that year

NOTE.—Revision of a paper read before the Southwestern Social Science Association, Galveston, Texas, March 27, 1959.

¹ U.S. Department of Commerce, *National Income Supplement to the Survey of Current Business* (1954 ed., Washington, Government Printing Office, July, 1957).

netted about 8 per cent more than the 1,107 tons in 1956. As a result of the market upturn the number of manufacturers active in this line of drugs increased from 21 to 27 in 1952. The profit level then sagged as quickly as it had risen, and in 1954 the number developing this market was down to 20. Another interesting association arises from the breakthrough on tranquilizers in 1954, after which the antibiotic market suffered a setback, as shown in Table 1. These dynamic features could be documented at great length. Of considerable importance is the rate at which prescription drugs in general are introduced. It has now reached a total of 1,500 per year.

TABLE 1

Manufacture of Antibiotics in the United States, 1950-56

	Tons Produced	
	Medicinal	Other*
1950	414	19
1951	631	118
1952	777	127
1953	804	215
1954	1,062	247
1955	895	273
1956	1,107	432

* Stock feed supplements, insect sprays, and plant-control formulas.

Source: U.S. Department of Commerce, *National Income Supplement to the Survey of Current Business*, 1954 ed.

The situation in the United States is unique and results from a number of developments peculiar to this country: the complete realignment of professional relations arising from the fact that American pharmacists have quit compounding drugs except in rare instances, while physicians by and large have quit dispensing drugs, which is not true in most other countries. Another important factor is the tremendous reliance of American physicians upon drugs rather than upon personal and physical resources.

The present pattern of distribution is characterized by intensive competition, product obsolescence, and a strong tradition of individualized private practice. The increasing number of restrictions and the increased tempo of enforcement by the Food and Drug Administration since 1938 has added a distinctive note by increasing the importance of a physician's prescription. That the net result of these various conditions is not understood even among physicians in a closely related culture is evident from the appearance of an article in a leading British medical journal, in which even the title missed the unique qualities of American drug distribution.²

² (Anonymous), "Selling Drugs to Doctors," *Practitioner*, Vol. 179 (November, 1957), p. 643.

Definition of Detailing

A truly American occupation, which has evolved almost wholly since 1940, is that of "detailing." There are now somewhere between 20,000 and 50,000 detailmen (no scientific data are available), whose activities were described ten years ago as follows:

[He] introduces new pharmaceutical products and their methods of use to physicians, dentists, hospitals, and public-health officials, promoting the use of the product rather than selling it. This requires a thorough familiarity with the application of medical preparations and a general knowledge of medical practice.⁸

The observation concerning professional knowledge has far more bearing since the advent of the "miracle" drugs. The majority of medical-service representatives are registered pharmacists, and only the shortage of qualified people has prevented major companies from adhering strictly to the policy of hiring only from this category. Candidates are usually given an exhaustive written examination, followed by interviews of themselves and their spouses, in the course of which many questions are designed to show up inconsistencies in their own descriptions. The major companies also use batteries of psychological tests. After initial selection, there is a planned training period and a field-experience period, after which the candidate may still be rejected.

A distinction needs to be made between two broad classes of detailmen. Physicians in general recognize a real difference between "ethical" and "nonethical" representatives. They allow the former to join with them in presenting scientific and educational materials in medical schools, encourage them to sponsor scientific and postgraduate symposia, and frequently establish a first-name relationship with them. Their attitudes toward nonethical representatives range from the friendly tolerance accorded insurance salesmen to a feeling that these are definitely a low type of parasite. In general, the ethical companies develop new drugs for the prescription market and make their appeal to the professions, whereas nonethical companies handle prescription items which others have developed plus a wide variety of over-the-counter items, and distribute through all available channels.

How a detailman might be described would vary between these two classes. However, it is unusual for a detailman to carry an order book, and he rarely makes the same sort of appeal to a physician or pharmacist that he might to an eventual customer. This is emphasized in a statement by a leading drug company to prospective representatives:

The only substantial exception is the dispensing physician. In some areas, this type of doctor is numerous. Our policy is NOT to sell direct to the physician; in

⁸ U.S. Department of Labor, *Dictionary of Occupational Titles* (2d ed., Washington, D.C., 1949).

fact, when you study our distribution plan, you will see that we are not set up to sell the physician directly.

A number of job descriptions and a number of evaluations of detailing work from the standpoint of either the manufacturer or the physician are available, but for the most part these do not tell the *why* of detailing. From extensive analysis of the literature and interviews with doctors, the following reasons can be logically advanced for training a special category such as this:

- a) It is the *only* way of clarifying product differences without facing the possibility of legal complications.
- b) It is the *only* effective way of answering questions specific to the areas, type of practice, and experience of the practitioner.
- c) Since pharmacists can no longer expect to stock every current ethical product, it is the *most* effective way of promoting co-ordination of physician and pharmacy at the community level.
- d) It is *one* effective way of detecting professional reactions which are related to high and low volume of usage, a knowledge of which is essential to adequate planning.
- e) It is *one* effective way of promoting good public relations through continuity of service.

This listing does not make reference to the function of persuading physicians and pharmacists to adopt new products and to continue using established products in the face of competition. Detailmen and sales supervisors vary considerably in the importance they attach to this direct-influence factor. This factor is the only one about which the literature is sufficiently extensive to warrant discussion, and it forms the focus of the subsequent analysis in this paper. In reviewing the results it should be borne in mind that the various studies cited have relied in differing degree upon interviews and upon other sources of information, that the wording of questions has likewise varied considerably, and that some of the samples are quite incomparable. The proportion of people not responding is much higher in some studies than in others, and occasionally this important piece of information is not reported at all.

Influence

One of the earliest comprehensive studies was a doctoral dissertation completed in 1950 by Rabe.⁴ One portion dealt with interviews of 300 physicians, approximately half of them general practitioners, and the sample

⁴ Charles C. Rabe, "The Doctor Measures the Detailman," *Medical Marketing*, Vol. 11 (February, 1952), pp. 19-25.

was divided equally between Boston, Cleveland, and St. Louis. It was reported by 37 per cent that they adopted a product the first time as a result of detailing during the previous ten days; a total of 66 per cent stated that the seal of acceptance of the American Medical Association ordinarily influenced their decision to prescribe. No evaluation of the relative influence of detailmen was made, but there was reference to another study in which 46 per cent of 500 doctors attributed major influence to them, another 25 per cent to pharmacists, and 9 per cent to journal advertising.

The study by Caplow⁵ consisted of interviews with 129 physicians, taken to be "a reasonably accurate cross section" of practitioners in the North Central region. Although one definite aim of this research was to answer the question whether doctors followed the advice of "trend leaders" of their own profession, the study was inconclusive on that point. It was the opinion of Caplow that too much depends upon community and professional culture in a local area, and also that extensive qualitative research would be needed before a definitive statistical answer could be given. Some of his own qualitative observations are of considerable interest: that the pharmaceutical market presents the paradox of highly variable demand in a highly stable consumer market; that the early appearance of an easily-pronounced name is likely to result in the substitution of a proprietary designation for a generic one; and that both detailmen and salesmen were employed in the same area by some companies, indicating clearly that the two kinds of work are differentiated.

Subsequent interviews with 182 physicians in the same area, with only 5 per cent nonresponse, were analyzed by Caplow and Raymond.⁶ Physicians were allowed to state freely the sources of influence in whatever order might occur to them. Only 22 per cent mentioned but one source; detailmen received the highest frequency of first mention (31 per cent), but journal advertising came in strongly with second and third mentions (32 per cent and 39 per cent). It is interesting to note that of all the products discussed in this particular study, only 23 per cent had been in use for two years or longer.

Using further data from the same sample, Hubbard⁷ found that multiple influences are ordinarily at work in the adoption process. He indicated that the frequency of adoption is highly correlated with the number of media to which the doctor is exposed, and that the total number of impressions is seventeen times as high for journal advertisements as for the detailman.

⁵ Theodore Caplow, "Market Attitudes: A Research Report from the Medical Field," *Harvard Business Review*, Vol. 30 (November-December, 1952), pp. 105-112.

⁶ Theodore Caplow and John J. Raymond, "Factors Influencing the Selection of Pharmaceutical Products," *Journal of Marketing*, Vol. 19 (1954), pp. 18-23.

⁷ Alfred W. Hubbard, "Percentage of Distribution of Promotional Results for Three Commercial Media," *Modern Medicine Topics*, Vol. 16 (June, 1955), pp. 14-15.

However, as he pointed out, no good measure of detailing has been developed which would correspond with journal readership or the frequency of recall of standard advertising copy.

The study by Dichter⁸ dealt with "depth" interviews with 207 physicians, including projective tests. It was not a random sample, but it did include some from every section of the country, and it included population centers all the way from villages to metropolitan areas. Statements characterized a "good detailman" as more like a friend than a salesman (45 per cent), and the ideal company as more like a counseling service than an insurance firm (63 per cent). The more important sources of influence in the adoption of drugs were detailmen, with 44 per cent choice, and direct mail or journal advertising, 30 per cent combined. Of particular importance was the finding that almost all those interviewed thought that from 50 to 90 per cent of *other* physicians would be swayed by detailmen. The personality of the detailman was rated important in his performance, as were a high educational level, a good grasp on technical matters, and the inclination and capacity to gather and pass on significant field observations.

The best-known sociological study of relative influence is that by Menzel and Katz.⁹ Ignoring qualifications due to differences in methodology, this research verified in general a number of findings concerning the diffusion of new practices among farmers: commercial sources of information were represented as relatively unimportant, and the informal contact of "opinion leaders" (what Caplow had termed "trend leaders") was given as the primary factor in the majority of actual adoptions.

This conclusion is remarkable for a number of reasons. First of all it is highly unusual to find such convergence in two fields, and in this instance doubly so because of the fundamentally different character of the two markets. Adoption in the American medical market requires a decision by prescribers and another by suppliers, with the consumer represented largely by the fact that 20 per cent of the prescriptions remain unfilled. Other distinctions include the rigid legal controls, a striking difference in needs served, and contrasting standards of judgment.

The conclusion of Menzel and Katz was not supported completely by their own data.¹⁰ Among three classes of physicians, ranked according to the frequency with which drug therapy was discussed, detailmen were given a

⁸ Ernest Dichter, *Pharmaceutical Advertising* (New York, Pharmaceutical Advertising Club, 1955).

⁹ Herbert Menzel and Elihu Katz, "Social Relations and Innovation in the Medical Profession: The Epidemiology of A New Drug," *Public Opinion Quarterly*, Vol. 19 (Winter, 1955/56), pp. 337-352. This and other studies by these authors are now available in a large number of sources.

¹⁰ *Op. cit.*, p. 342, Table 1. One cannot say the conclusion is inconsistent, for doctors gave varying numbers of choices; hence a statistical test is impossible.

consistently more frequent mention than colleagues as channels for reaching decisions. Among those physicians where discussion frequency was highest, the ratings of detailmen and colleagues were closest, but it was also this group that made all the mentions of "meetings"—those affairs where the drug exhibit manned by an experienced detailman is one of the chief attractions—as a source of decisive influence.

Taking up the "opinion leader" theme, Hubbard¹¹ pointed out that in a subsequent study by Menzel and Katz only one-fourth of the physicians in social contact with users of the drug actually adopted it, implying that social contact and opinion leadership are two different things. He also drew attention to the fact that this was consistent with the findings of the Caplow-Raymond study,¹² which reached a different conclusion. From analysis of existing data, Hubbard found that 172 counties—or six per cent of the area of the United States—account for 56 per cent of all practicing physicians and 52 per cent of all drug sales. Since that would leave an average among the remainder of only 145 physicians per county, it was his belief that social interaction could not, at best, account for nearly half the drug market. This analysis, limited entirely to secondary data, is one of the very few which relied entirely upon the argument of statistics for their conclusions.

Noyes¹³ omitted details of research design but did present a unique comparison of 1952 and 1956 data for the same sample. Detailmen held their own, with 67 per cent and 65 per cent favorable mention on new products, and 50 per cent in each year as influences for retaining established products. Journal advertising was mentioned favorably by 40 per cent in 1952 and 38 per cent in 1956 on new products, 55 and 50 per cent, respectively, on older ones; direct mail fell off badly in its appeal, and all other media were below the 30-per-cent level in both surveys.

An unusual sampling design appears in the extensive health-attitude study sponsored by Health Information Foundation and conducted by National Opinion Research Center.¹⁴ The sample of the general public were asked if they had a family physician and if so to give his name. From the resulting list, representing more than 90 per cent of the consumer sample, interviews were conducted with 471 physicians. Their statements about influence are represented in Table 2. The first column shows the distribution of response

¹¹ Alfred W. Hubbard, "Medical Service Center Markets in the United States," *Modern Medicine Topics*, Vol. 16 (December, 1955), pp. 1-6.

¹² *Op. cit.*

¹³ Dorothy Noyes, "Your Share of Professional Time," *Modern Medicine Topics*, Vol. 17 (June, 1956), pp. 5-7.

¹⁴ Health Information Foundation—National Opinion Research Center (HIF-NORC), 1955 Health Attitude Study. (Unpublished materials made available to the author for inclusion in this paper.) Information concerning this project can be found under Project C 62 in *An Inventory of Social and Economic Research in Health* (7th ed., New York, Health Information Foundation, 1958).

TABLE 2

Family Physicians' Sources of Information Concerning Drug Products

Source	Percentage of Total Sample	
	Learn About No. (471)	Start Using No. (469)
Medical journals	89	66
Official meetings of local, state, or national medical societies	50	21
Staff meetings at hospitals	51	22
Informal discussions with other doctors	52	25
Detailmen	81	20
Publications of drug houses	51	11
Druggists	14	1
None of them; Don't know	---	2
	388*	168*

* Many doctors mentioned more than one source of information.

Source: Health Information Foundation—National Opinion Research Center: 1955 Health Attitude Study. (Unpublished materials made available to the author for inclusion in this paper.)

to the question "Which of the following sources of information do you use to learn about a new drug and its application?" and the second, response to the question "Which of those sources of information do you generally depend upon most, in deciding *when to start using* a new drug?" These proportions are not mutually exclusive, and it should also be stated that the term "medical journals" in this table indicates both advertising and scholarly papers. It is quite possible, too, that detailmen exercise influence through both types of meetings shown in Table 2. However, two things stand out: the number of influences narrows considerably, on the average, from first information to the decision to adopt, and in neither case was the "opinion leader" (corresponding to "Informal discussions with other doctors") definitely superior to any of the appeals from drug companies.

Owing to the manner in which the HIF-NORC sample was drawn there was a heavy concentration of general practitioners with large private practices, usually between forty to sixty years of age, and with disproportionate representation from the rural areas; nevertheless it is the best available picture of a successful family physician, the sort of person who controls the trend of the drug market. For both initial information and final adoption, the influence of detailmen tended to be higher among older physicians and those rated "about average" by people naming them as their physicians.

The only intensive study of community drug adoption is that done by Ben Gaffin and Associates for the American Medical Association.¹⁵ Fond du Lac,

¹⁵ American Medical Association, *Effectiveness of Promotion in a Medical Marketing Area* (Chicago, Journal of the American Medical Association, 1956).

Wisconsin, was chosen as a representative community for this purpose and the 55 physicians practicing in that area were interviewed regarding five recently-introduced drugs. The tendency for a very few physicians to account for the bulk of prescriptions was found present in each instance, both for specialty drugs and those of rather wide application. The influence of an "opinion leader" was present in one of the five adoption patterns, which is summarized in Table 3. Detailmen were reportedly most influential in the other four promotions. As shown here, the specialist tied with the detailman as a source of influence in deciding about the one drug.

TABLE 3

Sources of Information Leading to the Adoption of Furadantin by 26 Prescribers

Specialist "A"	7
Detailmen	7
Journal articles	6
Direct mail	4
Hospital staff meetings	2
Other	3
	<hr/> 29*

* Some doctors reported more than one source of information.

Source: American Medical Association, *Effectiveness of Promotion in a Medical Marketing Area*. Report No. 14, "The Furadantin Story." Courtesy of the American Medical Association.

TABLE 4

Detailing of Furadantin and Its Adoption by Physicians

	<i>Adopted</i>	<i>Not Adopted</i>
Detailed	18	9
Not detailed	8	20
	<hr/> 26	<hr/> 29

Source: Compiled from American Medical Association, *op. cit.* (see Table 3). Courtesy of the American Medical Association.

The reader should bear in mind that, statistically speaking, the trend leader or opinion leader could exceed the detailman substantially once out of five trials, in any one sample, and still not signify a phenomenon of general validity. Fortunately, the statistical argument is rendered much better by the fact that the Fond du Lac study was carried out and reported in great detail. From additional data given, it was possible to construct Table 4, showing that 18 of 26 adopters and only 9 of 29 nonadopters had been detailed. This comparison yielded a corrected Chi square of 7.55, indicating a probability of .99 that there is a true relationship between being detailed and adopting, regardless of the reason given for the decision to adopt.

The Reference Group

From his analysis of available sources and from personal observation, Staudt¹⁶ attached particular importance to a matter which had been noted by others, primarily Caplow and Raymond, and Dichter—the probability that physicians will be influenced, in their responses, by the stereotype of what physicians ideally should do. To intimates doctors often express quite freely the idea that the great complexity and confusion concerning the synthetic drugs makes the work of the detailmen imperative. On the other hand, both in the public eye and among their colleagues at meetings, they are expected to act only upon the consensus of scholarly opinion. As was noted in the Dichter study, they may attribute much more dependence upon the detailman to their professional colleagues generally than they are willing to admit individually. This is what one might expect if they are acting in terms of what has come to be called "the reference group."¹⁷

If the reference group is a factor, one would expect physicians' judgments concerning both detailmen and direct mail to be colored by the extent to which they believe pharmaceutical houses are doers of good deeds and sponsors of activities which will improve the scientific knowledge of the profession. They could be expected to exaggerate, on recall, the frequency and importance of consulting colleagues rather than depending upon the help of outsiders. In an investigation such as the one in Fond du Lac, where the inquiry was identified with their profession, they could be expected to reveal more willingly the extent to which they are influenced by brand names, people they like, companies which were lauded by superiors during their internship, experiences of their own families, the wishes of patients, or the ease with which drug company "recipes" can be followed. Apparently this kind of approach to general factors underlying choice has never been reported.

In connection with reference groups one might also expect that there would be a discrepancy between what the doctor tells others and what he tells himself in a diary. In a study by Ferber and Wales,¹⁸ aimed at differentiating the effects of direct mail and those of journal advertising, 210 physicians kept such diaries. From this evidence, representing only a little more than half those interviewed, it appears that detailmen were a more convincing source of information than doctors admitted in conversation, even though these diaries were kept specifically for the purposes of the research.

¹⁶ Thomas A. Staudt, "Determining and Evaluating the Promotional Mix," *Modern Medicine Topics*, Vol. 18 (July, 1957), pp. 3-11.

¹⁷ One of the best discussions of this term will be found in Robert K. Merton and Paul F. Lazarsfeld (eds.), *Continuities in Social Research* (Glencoe, Ill., The Free Press, 1950), pp. 40 ff.

¹⁸ Robert Ferber and Hugh G. Wales, *The Effectiveness of Pharmaceutical Promotion* (Urbana, Ill., University of Illinois, 1958).

On the other hand, the same physicians were found to be very accurate in recalling and describing the contents of genuine advertisements and less than 5 per cent had false recall of spurious ones. These investigators, contrary to several others, found that the first source of information was most likely to be the convincing one.

Conclusion

The parallel questions of opinion leadership and the effects of the reference group are important for social science, not only from the standpoint of knowledge of occupations and what light may be thrown on economic behavior, but as fundamental conceptions of the way in which groups are organized, attitudes formulated, and innovations accepted. The amount of controversy existing to date would indicate that here is a fertile field for investigation. Taken together, the studies reviewed would support the assumption that these two questions can be answered better through joint analysis in one sample rather than separately and in different samples.

It would be well to know the functional relationship of information to each of the major aspects of promotion—the adoption of a new drug, and maintaining the use of an established product. While it is interesting to see the statistical ranking of various influences by numbers of group choices, there apparently has been no attempt to find average scale values or other measures of average relative influences upon the individuals. Another phase of investigation might be aimed at by the question "In conjunction with how much advertising, in what sequences as to time of introduction of a drug, is the detailman most effective?" The results of the HIF-NORC study also suggest that the detailman could be better utilized if more were known of attitude differentials by age, type of practice, location, and so on.

Nothing is known about differences among detailmen according to the size of company they represent, the kinds of products handled, or their personal detailing habits. In all the literature there is no good study of what detailmen believe about physicians and their relationship with them. We have no conception of what the detailman considers the most important information he is called upon to give, how he judges his effectiveness, or how he views his position in the scheme of things. We have, in fact, only the vaguest notion of the occupational goals, habits, and social and economic position of the thousands of men in this occupation, so deeply involved in an extremely important sector of the American economy.

The few sociological studies to date have produced highly encouraging results. Investigation might well center upon the detailman himself. First of all, there is serious doubt that the situation wherein a colleague is sought out is at all comparable to the indiscriminating approach of the detailman to

every member of the profession; hence there may be little point in a statistical ranking of colleagues and other sources of influence. Studying detailmen themselves has the added advantage of contributing to occupational sociology as well as utilizing a valuable means of checking the impressions of physicians and market analysts.

Foreign-Area Training Fellowships

Fellowships for study in the social sciences, including law and the humanities, related to Asia, the Near East, Eastern Europe, the Soviet Union, or to Africa south of the Sahara, are being made available in limited numbers by the Ford Foundation. These are training grants, not research projects. Senior students,

graduate students, and holders of the doctorate are eligible under specified conditions. Study may be undertaken in this country or abroad, in or out of a college. Stipends vary, but run approximately \$175 per month, plus allowances for tuition, transportation, and dependents.

Zionism and Christian America: The Political Use of Reference Groups

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ANY EFFORT TO DOCUMENT the building of Zionist strength from among the reservoir of potential American supporters must do more than trace the emergence of increasingly pro-Zionist postures on the part of virtually every major Jewish organization in the years preceding the birth of Israel. Attention must also be directed at non-Jewish (or what Zionists called "Christian") reactions to Zionist aspirations. This is so not only because the mobilization of non-Jewish notables in behalf of their program was a conscious objective of Zionist leaders but also because Zionist strivings with non- and anti-Zionist Jews cannot be abstracted from the total environment of the majority, non-Jewish culture. Indeed, aside from the direct value of non-Jewish contributions to the achievement of Zionist political goals, a challenging question may be raised: Could Zionism have mobilized American Jewry without the active support and encouragement of prominent non-Jews?

Sociological theory and common observation both aver that large sections of every minority group are oriented in their daily lives and values toward the dominant, majority culture rather than toward their own groups. Thus, the "anti-Semitic Jew," or what Kurt Lewin more adequately termed the "self-hating Jew,"¹ is familiar to any student of Jewish affairs. With so many Jews haunted by minority-group feelings of inferiority vis-à-vis the possibly more attractive and rewarding "reference groups" of their Christian neighbors, the reactions of non-Jews to the Zionist program were matters of no small concern in determining the ultimate stand of American Jewry on the Zionist question. In fact, prominent non-Jewish supporters of a Jewish state may be said to have mattered considerably more than similarly situated

¹ See, for example, Lewin's *Resolving Social Conflicts* (New York, Harper & Brothers, 1948); Alvin W. Gouldner, *Studies in Leadership* (New York, Harper & Brothers, 1950), pp. 195-271; and Sol Liptzin, *Generation of Decision* (New York, Bloch Publishing Company, 1958).

Jews. Not only could a Christian Zionist make his own financial, moral, or political contribution to the Zionist cause, but his example would serve as a potent influence on that considerable body of American Jews who feared any Jewish move likely to prove "distasteful" or "ill-advised" to the non-Jewish majority. To put it another way, since many Jews were eager to identify themselves with the values of the Christian community, Zionism would find Jewish support in the measure that it first won non-Jewish converts to its program.

No matter how effectively Zionist leadership proclaimed its superior morale based upon a "positive philosophy" of Jewish survival and cultural creativity, and no matter how insistently it chided "fear-obsessed" and "timid" non-Zionists (especially those in the American Council for Judaism and, before 1946, in the leadership of the American Jewish Committee) for a too-frequent attention to what non-Jews thought of Zionism, the leaders of American Zionism never completely ignored the need for mobilizing "Christian America" in behalf of a Jewish Palestine. This is not to imply that Zionists operated consciously from a base of social psychological evidence. But, just as Theodor Herzl was keenly aware of the necessity of winning pro-Zionist testimonials from Christian princes and kings as a forerunner to effective work among skeptical Jews, Zionist leaders regularly called for a "systematic program of enlightenment among non-Jews."²

Scholars have often observed that widespread American Christian interest in the Jewish Restoration to Palestine preceded the development of the modern Zionist movement by many decades. Recent studies have dealt with one or another aspect of this Christian interest in the early twentieth-century period, culminating with the Congressional Resolution on Palestine of 1922.³ The scope of this paper, therefore, will be that of the more contemporary period, 1929-48.

Following the Arab riots of 1929, Zionists made several abortive attempts

² On Herzl's view of negotiation with non-Jewish notables, see *Theodor Herzl*, 1929 special edition of *New Palestine*, especially p. 140. A vivid example of Zionist exhortation to convert non-Jews to Zionism can be found in *New Palestine*, January 24, 1930, p. 52. An overt usage of Lewin's "reference group" teachings is found in Arthur Lelyveld's "The Anti-Zionists Seize an Opportunity," *Student Zionist*, December, 1946, p. 25.

³ For indications of Christian interest in Zionism before 1930, see, for example, Reuben Fink (ed.), *The American War Congress and Zionism* (New York, Zionist Organization of America, 1919); Isidore S. Meyer (ed.), *Early History of Zionism in America* (New York, American Jewish Historical Society and Theodor Herzl Foundation, 1958); Frank E. Manuel, *The Realities of American-Palestine Relations* (Washington, Public Affairs Press, 1949); Carl H. Voss, *The Palestine Problem Today* (New York, American Christian Palestine Committee, 1946); Irwin Oder, "American Zionism and the Congressional Resolution of 1922 on Palestine," *Publications of the American Jewish Historical Society* (September, 1955); Selig Adler, "Whither U.S. Policy?" *Congress Weekly* (October, 1956); Milton Plesur, "The Relations Between the United States and Palestine," *Judaism* (Fall, 1954); M. Eskolsky, "America and Zion," *Palestine and Middle East* (March, 1944).

to channel long-standing Christian sympathy for Jewish aspiration in Palestine into political support for the movement. At the behest of the noted Chicago Zionist leader Judge Julian Mack, Reverend Charles Edward Russell formed a Pro-Palestine Federation of America in Chicago in January, 1930. Combining a Pro-Palestine declaration with a platform of Christian-Jewish good will and antiprejudice education, the federation succeeded in enrolling many notable Christian clergymen.⁴ Another Christian organization, the American Palestine Committee, formed in May, 1932, listed an even more illustrious membership on its letterhead. Headed by Senator William King of Utah, the committee had as its honorary chairmen Vice-President Charles Curtis, Senator William E. Borah (chairman, Senate Foreign Relations Committee), and Senator Claude E. Swanson (the ranking minority member of the same committee). Other public luminaries initially included were the Senate minority leader, Secretary of Agriculture, Assistant Secretary of State, Assistant Attorney-General, Solicitor-General of the State Department, Assistant Commissioner of Education, Assistant Commissioner of Reclamation, ten senators, and eighteen representatives.⁵

Despite this impressive roster of supporters and sponsors, Christian Zionist activities were less than wholeheartedly supported by official Zionist leadership. While Zionist periodicals of 1933 carried news of the merger of all existing Christian Zionist groups into a new Pro-Palestine Federation and, consequently, predicted great increases in non-Jewish support for Zionism, Zionist leaders were inwardly less sanguine. Writing to the World Zionist Organization's London Office early in 1934, Morris Rothenberg, president of the Zionist Organization of America, noted that the Z.O.A. had "from time to time, utilized non-Jewish agencies in connection with our political work," but conceded that the new Pro-Palestine Federation was "largely a paper organization concentrated in the person of Mr. [A. Ben] Elias." Aside from a few creditable, albeit sporadic, issues of the *Pro-Palestine Herald*, Rothenberg considered the work of the federation "negligible." Under the circumstances, he informed London, the Z.O.A. could not support "either Mr. Elias or his methods of procedure."⁶

But even without official American Zionist support, the Pro-Palestine Federation proceeded independently to take such actions as would strengthen the hand of world Zionism. Following the advent of Hitler to power, the

⁴ On the federation's program and leadership, see *Pro-Palestine Herald*, January, 1932, and succeeding issues, and *Principles and Program of the Pro-Palestine Federation of America*. On Zionist contacts with leading Christians in this period, see file ZA/3215 III in Central Zionist Archives, Jerusalem.

⁵ Reuben Fink (ed.), *America and Palestine* (New York, American Zionist Emergency Council, 1944), pp. 58-59.

⁶ Letter to Israel Cohen in Central Archives, Jerusalem, file S25/237, dated January 29, 1934.

federation addressed Prime Minister Baldwin in the name of "the consensus of enlightened Christian American opinion" and asked that the gates of Palestine be thrown open to receive "the victimized and persecuted Jews escaping from the European holocaust." Declaring that the "restoration of the Land of Israel to the Children of Israel is the guiding star in this great struggle for a better world and a better humanity," the signatories expressed their steadfast devotion to the creation of the Jewish National Homeland.⁷ Moreover, when in the wake of the Arab riots of 1936, British authorities threatened to curtail Jewish immigration, Christian Zionists promptly convened an "American Christian Conference on Palestine," which voiced its indignant disapproval of any departure from the League of Nations Mandate for Palestine guaranteeing Jewish immigration.⁸ Subsequent meetings endorsed the full demands of the Zionist movement in urging Great Britain to cease obstructing Jewish settlement, to restore Transjordan to the areas intended for Jewish colonization, and so forth. In these demands, the Pro-Palestine Federation, headed by the Reverend Russell, claimed to speak in the name of hundreds of Catholic and Protestant clergymen, cabinet officials, labor leaders, governors, college presidents, professors, and mayors.⁹

Again, when rumors of a proposal to stop Jewish immigration into Palestine spread throughout America in 1938, Christian supporters rallied to the defense of the Zionist cause. Several days after the formation of the Zionist National Emergency Committee on Palestine, a "Provisional Committee on Palestine Policy," organized by 36 lay and clerical leaders, seconded Christian Zionist protestations to Prime Minister Chamberlain. In addition, the Pro-Palestine Federation even went so far as to urge the United States government to intercede directly in Palestinian affairs,¹⁰ thus ignoring the long-standing Zionist procedure of appealing directly to British governments without involving American officialdom. Other organizations, among them the National Council of Catholic Men and the Federal Council of Churches of Christ in America, subsequently endorsed this appeal. Similarly, a petition inaugurated by the *ad hoc* Zionist "National Emergency Committee on Palestine" and signed by 51 senators, 154 representatives, and 30 governors urged President Roosevelt to "take action" to eliminate British obstructions to the realization of the Jewish National Home.¹¹ Other examples of Chris-

⁷ Text in *New Palestine*, June 4, 1936, p. 9. Signatories included James F. Freeman, Episcopal bishop of Washington; Samuel Harden Church, president of Carnegie Institute; S. Parkes Cadman, president of the Union of Congregational Churches in America; Ivan Lee Holt, president of the Federal Council of Churches in America; Frederick B. Robinson, president of City College of New York; and others.

⁸ *Ibid.*, September 11, 1936, p. 2.

⁹ *Ibid.*, December 18, 1936, p. 1.

¹⁰ *Contemporary Jewish Record* (November, 1938), pp. 71-72.

¹¹ *Ibid.*, pp. 73-75.

tian contributions to the Zionist offensive against the restrictive clauses of the British White Paper of 1939 include a formal protest to the British government lodged by 28 senators, a denunciatory resolution of 15 of the 25 members of the House Committee on Foreign Affairs, protests of the American Legion, Disabled War Veterans and Veterans of Foreign Wars (all solicited by the pro-Zionist leadership of the Jewish War Veterans), and additional declarations of the Pro-Palestine Federation.¹²

But again, despite such numerous manifestations of genuine non-Jewish support for the execution of the Zionist program as outlined in the Balfour Declaration and the Mandate for Palestine, Christian Zionism had not yet achieved a reliable organizational channel and possessed no voice except the sporadic petitions and manifestos devised by non-Jewish Zionists or solicited hurriedly by Jewish leaders to counter emergencies as they arose. The mobilization, encouragement, and support of a Christian Zionist vehicle for tapping the vast reservoir of latent pro-Zionist and pro-Palestine sympathy was not accorded a place of significance in Zionist leadership priorities.

However, as the progressive ravages of the Second World War immeasurably exacerbated Jewish suffering in Europe, American Zionists moved their political offensive into "high gear." The shaping and mobilization of favorable non-Jewish opinion was elevated to a conscious, purposeful goal of Zionist leadership. Dr. Emanuel Neumann, the Zionist leader directly responsible for this task, thus declared to the assembled Zionist delegates at the May, 1942, "Extraordinary Zionist Conference" (Biltmore Conference) that Zionism's previous efforts with "Christian America" were grossly inadequate to the tasks at hand. In the past generation, he said, "we Zionists have isolated ourselves from the vital currents of American life and American thought. We have withdrawn into our shell." Henceforth, American Zionism must approach the problem of winning over public opinion on a number of levels. First, on the political level, "It is obvious that we have to convince all those who are in public life of our own united desire and determination to see the Zionist program through and ensure their support." Second, on the moral level, Zionists must impress the "church unions, organizations of clergy and laity, great publicists, teachers and preachers who speak for the Conscience of America. We have to present this to them as a great moral problem, involving great moral issues." Finally, affirmed Neumann, Zionists must use an intellectual approach and thereby influence "thoughtful America." Having failed in the past twenty years to deal with State Department research workers, private international organizations, universities, and research institutions, a concerted effort should now be launched to influence

¹² *Ibid.* (March-April, 1939), p. 84; U.S. *Congressional Record*, March 7, 1939, p. 2915 and May 25, 1939, p. 6167; *Proceedings of the American Jewish Conference*, 2d session (1944), p. 298.

those experts and scholars concerned with postwar planning in such trouble spots as Palestine.¹³

This formal and more deliberate approach to the exploitation of Christian sympathy for Zionist aspirations was well on the road to implementation by the time Neumann's plans were unveiled at the Biltmore Conference. Under Neumann's direction, and with the active participation of retired Supreme Court Associate Justice Louis D. Brandeis, the defunct American Palestine Committee was being reactivated. Moved by the twin tragedies of oppressive Hitlerian policies in Europe and oppressive British policies in Palestine, numerous and influential non-Jews responded to the invitation of Democratic Senator Robert F. Wagner and Republican Senator Charles F. McNary to form a "vehicle for the expression of the sympathy and good will of Christian America for the movement to re-establish the Jewish National Home in Palestine." Thus was reconstituted, on April 30, 1941, the American Palestine Committee, an association that numbered more than 15,000 influential Americans in its ranks by 1946 and that greatly surpassed the limited numbers and influence of the Pro-Palestine Federation of a decade earlier.

At its very inception, the A.P.C. proudly announced a membership including three Cabinet members, former Presidential nominees, and 68 United States senators and 200 representatives. An executive council, consisting of such well-known figures as Dr. Daniel L. Marsh, Professor William F. Albright, Dr. Henry A. Atkinson, Dr. Carl J. Friedrich, William Green, Eric A. Johnston, Philip Murray, Judge Frank A. Picard, Dr. Daniel A. Poling, Monsignor John A. Ryan, Dr. Carl Hermann Voss, Dr. Mary E. Woolley, and Senators Claude Pepper, Elbert D. Thomas, and Arthur H. Vandenberg immediately laid plans for the nationalization of the A.P.C.'s pro-Zionist program. Field workers were dispatched across the nation to build the first of more than seventy-five local A.P.C. chapters. In addition to more than \$72,000 per year (raised to \$150,000 annually by 1947/48) disbursed by the national American Zionist Emergency Council for work among non-Jews during 1943-45, local Z.O.A. and A.Z.E.C. chapters were exhorted to provide their Christian Zionist neighbors with funds, clerical services, and moral support. Only in that way could the A.P.C. realize its target: "to crystallize

¹³ *New Palestine*, May 15, 1942, pp. 13-14. The same issue (p. 9) carries an article by Samuel I. Feigin, "Zionism and American Intellectuals," appealing for more adequate public relations with the academic world. One indication of anti-Zionism on the part of American intellectuals is the unpublished memorandum of the Council on Foreign Relations, "The New Zionism and a Policy for the United States," October 19, 1943. This document, classified "Confidential," circulated to a number of distinguished foreign-relations experts.—See Central Zionist Archives file Z5/669. Other indications of Zionist work among intellectuals can be found in files Z5/1175 and Z5/1213.

the sympathy of Christian America for our cause, that it may be of service as the opportunity arises. Sympathy is like any other force: it is effective only when properly channeled."¹⁴

One of the first things the A.P.C. did was to circulate an impressive declaration entitled "The Common Purpose of Civilized Mankind," a re-affirmation of the "traditional American policy" in favor of a Jewish National Home. Issued on November 2, 1942—the twenty-fifth anniversary of the Balfour Declaration—this document bore the signatures of 68 senators and 194 congressmen, including both the Senate and House majority and minority leaders and 18 of the 23 members of the Senate Foreign Relations Committee. Submitted to President Roosevelt and Secretary of State Hull, this expression of "deep-seated sentiment in favor of the Jewish Homeland in Palestine," was afterwards widely distributed in "tens of thousands" of copies.¹⁵

An even more striking illustration of the degree to which Congressional opinion supported the Zionist program is contained in the statements compiled by the American Zionist Emergency Council in October, 1944. Of the 535 members of the Seventy-eighth Congress, 411 endorsed the Zionist call for immediate American action to sanction a Jewish commonwealth. Representatives of every state in the Union, totaling 86 per cent of the Senate and 75 per cent of the House, further affirmed the Jewish right to settle Palestine, unhampered by arbitrary British restrictions, such as those imposed by the White Paper of 1939.¹⁶

Christian sympathizers were by no means limited to the ranks of the American Congress. Prominent non-Jews, in addition to those previously named, who spoke before Zionist gatherings or sent messages of support to the Z.O.A. (culled at random from the pages of *New Palestine*, official organ of the Zionist Organization of America), included Paul V. McNutt, Robert H. Jackson, Harold L. Ickes, William Randolph Hearst, Dr. S. Ralph Harlow, Wendell L. Willkie, Walter Duranty, Sumner Welles, Raymond Gram Swing, Marshall Field, III, Van Wyck Brooks, Dorothy Thompson, Freda Kirchway, Reinhold Niebuhr, Walter Clay Lowdermilk, Owen Brewster, and Claude R. Wickard. Moreover, the Zionist cause enjoyed a quite

¹⁴ See Central Zionist Archives files S53/469a and S53/210b; "Zionist Public Relations Committees in Communities Throughout America," p. 3; American Jewish Conference, *Report of the Interim Committee and the . . . Commission on Palestine*, p. 75; Neumann's "Shall America Speak? The Importance of the American Palestine Committee and the Political Tasks of American Zionism," *New Palestine*, March 28, 1941, pp. 10–11; *ibid.*, April 4, p. 25; *ibid.*, May 9, pp. 8–10, 16.

¹⁵ The American Zionist Emergency Council, *A Report of Activities, 1940–1946*, pp. 7–8. A similar declaration was again submitted by Senator Wagner to the President on December 18, 1942.

¹⁶ Numerous relevant documents can be found in Fink's *America and Palestine*.

favorable press, a fact which Zionist leaders were quick to publicize by issuing a number of impressive collections of pro-Zionist newspaper editorials and syndicated columns.¹⁷

Operating independently of the "regular" Zionist organizations, various Zionist "Revisionist-front" activities also met with a sympathetic response among the non-Jewish population. These organizations, not subject to the discipline or direction of the American Emergency Committee for Zionist Affairs, rallied a host of Christian supporters for its goal of transferring the Jews of Europe to the shores of Palestine. Included among the honorary chairmen of the "Emergency Conference to Save the Jewish People of Europe" (July 20-25, 1943) were: Dean Alfange, William Green, Arthur Garfield Hays, William Randolph Hearst, Herbert Hoover, Harold L. Ickes, Senator Edwin C. Johnson, Philip Murray, Harrison H. Spangler, Rex Stout, Senator Elbert D. Thomas, Bishop Henry St. George Tucker, Hendrick Willem Van Loon, and William Allen White. Other participants in the conference included: Archbishop Athenagoras, Bishop James Cannon, Ilka Chase, Jimmy Durante, Clark M. Eichelberger, Mayor Fiorella La Guardia, Judge Dorothy Kenyon, Senator William Langer, Elsa Maxwell, Edgar Ansel Mowrer, Admiral Yates Stirling, Jr., Lyman Beecher Stowe, and Sigrid Undset.¹⁸ Hundreds of other prominent personalities, particularly drawn from the entertainment, literary, and news-reporting fields, were also listed as sponsors and supporters of numerous Revisionist groups whose ultimate aim—a Jewish state in Palestine—was identical to that of other Zionist organizations co-ordinated by the American Zionist Emergency Council.¹⁹

Among the Christian clergy, too, the Old Testament's prediction of a Jewish Restoration to Palestine was often an article of fundamental belief. As Americans became increasingly aware of Hitler's extermination of European Jewry, basic Christian sympathies for the Zionist program in Palestine were intensified. To give voice to the demand that "an end be put to Jewish suffering," a Christian Council on Palestine was formed on December 14, 1942. Numbering almost 3,000 prominent clergymen in 1946 (particularly drawn from the liberal Protestant denominations), the council's prestige and

¹⁷ See the American Zionist Emergency Council's press books: *American Public Opinion on British Policy in Palestine*, *America Speaks on Palestine*, *The Balfour Declaration and American Interest in Palestine*, *Palestine in the Press*, *Press Book on the 1939 British White Paper on Palestine*, and *Press Book on Palestine Jewry's Contribution on the War Against the Axis*.

¹⁸ Emergency Committee to Save the Jewish People of Europe, *Memorandum on the Findings of the Emergency Conference to Save the Jewish People of Europe*, p. 2.

¹⁹ Note, for example, the New Zionist Organization of America's pamphlet, *The American-British Convention on Palestine*.

authority were utilized in numerous representations to the American public and government on behalf of Zionist goals in Palestine.²⁰

An impressive example of the type of invaluable services rendered to the Zionist cause by these lay and clerical groups was the "National Conference on Palestine," convened at Washington's Hotel Statler on March 9, 1944, at a time when controversial Congressional resolutions subscribing to the Jewish commonwealth were under official consideration. Sponsored by the American Palestine Committee and Christian Council on Palestine in co-operation with the C.I.O., A.F.L., Free World Association, Union for Democratic Action, Unitarian Fellowship for Social Justice, and United Christian Council for Democracy, the conference assembled 143 "big-name" delegates from 86 American communities and approximately 700 leading Washingtonians, including numerous high-ranking officials, as dinner guests. The conference then placed itself squarely behind the pending Wagner-Taft and Wright-Compton resolutions.²¹

Other meetings on the local level, attended by tens of thousands of Christians in major American cities, pronounced similar goals for non-Jewish supporters who longed to alleviate Jewish suffering and "right an ancient wrong." In the 1944 Zionist campaign for the abrogation of the

²⁰ The executive committee of this clerical body included Carl Herman Voss, Howard D. Warren, John W. Bradbury, Reinhold Niebuhr, James Luther Adams, Richard E. Evans, Daniel A. Poling, Paul Tillich, William F. Albright, Karl M. Chworowsky, S. Ralph Harlow, John Haynes Holmes, Leslie T. Pennington, Howell Paul Sloan, and Pierre van Paassen, in addition to its president, Henry A. Atkinson. See their testimony before the U.S. House of Representatives Committee on Foreign Affairs, *The Jewish National Home in Palestine*, pp. 192-194, 238-239. Carl J. Friedrich and Walter Clay Lowdermilk were also among the prominent non-Jews who added their voice to the Zionist demand for a Jewish commonwealth.—*ibid.*, pp. 97-106 and 175-192, respectively. For an example of the council's pro-Zionist literature, see *Truth About Palestine*. Note, also, the memorandum of the Emergency Committee for Zionist Affairs on "Palestine and the Arab World," dated June 17, 1941, which stressed to its Christian audience the "community of interest" between the Jews of Palestine and the Maronites and other Christians of Lebanon.

²¹ See "The Voice of Christian America," *Proceedings of the National Conference on Palestine*; and American Jewish Conference, *Report of the Interim Committee and . . . Commission on Palestine*, pp. 75-77. The National Conference further voted to engage in continuing co-operation with the A.P.C. with a view toward adopting a common "program of action." Named to a committee for this purpose were Daniel Marsh, president of Boston University; Carl J. Friedrich, of Harvard; Norman Littell, Assistant Attorney-General of the United States; David Henry, executive vice-president of Wayne University; Daniel A. Poling, editor of the *Christian Herald*; Henry A. Atkinson, general secretary of the Church Peace Union and of the World Alliance for International Friendship; and two newspapermen. A larger conference, the "International Christian Conference for Palestine," was convened by similar sponsors on November 1-2, 1945. Delegates from 29 countries there established a "World Committee for Palestine" to co-operate with the A.P.C. and the Zionist movement.—See *Proceedings of the International Christian Conference for Palestine and Central Zionist Archives file Z3/399*.

White Paper, more than 3,000 non-Jewish organizations—unions, churches, Rotary, Lion, Elk, and Kiwanis clubs, Y.M.C.A.'s, ministers' associations, orders of the Knights of Pythias, and farm Granges—passed pro-Zionist resolutions, circulated petitions, and sent letters and telegrams to the Administration and their Congressional representatives. In Meriden, Connecticut, alone, whose entire Jewish population did not exceed 1,500 persons, more than 12,000 letters on the subject of Palestine were reportedly dispatched to President Roosevelt and the State Department. Similar expressions to Washington emanated from 200 non-Jewish organizations in Colorado, from petitions signed by 60,000 persons in South Bend, Indiana, and from Leominster, Massachusetts, 1,000 telegrams. Congressmen expressed "amazement" at such substantial non-Jewish interest in distant Palestine.²²

Having succeeded in erecting sizable and influential alliances on the national "political" (Congressional) and "moral" (church) levels, Zionist public-relations officials next turned to the academic and local-government levels, again with considerable success. *A Petition to the United States, Respectfully Submitted by Members of the Faculties of American Schools of Higher Learning*, delivered to President Roosevelt in January, 1945, fully seconded the Zionist demands for the ultimate reconstitution of Palestine "as a free and democratic Jewish Commonwealth" and the immediate opening of that country for unlimited immigration and colonization. Bearing the names of more than 150 college presidents and deans, the *Petition* was also signed by about 1,800 faculty members drawn from 250 colleges and universities in 45 states.²³ In addition, pro-Zionist resolutions were enacted by 41 state legislatures and hundreds of municipalities, representing more than 90 per cent of the nation's population. *A Petition to the President of the United States from the Governors of Forty-One States*, submitted July 2, 1945, was yet another of the numerous testimonials obtained by the Zionist

²² The Club Program Service of the A.P.C. and Christian Council, which supplied lecturers for thousands of colleges, churches, women's clubs, and so on, invariably was able to obtain prominent Christian speakers for such local conferences.—See American Zionist Emergency Council, *A Report of Activities, 1940-1946*, pp. 8-9, and "Report on Community Contacts Submitted to the Executive Committee of the American Zionist Emergency Council," May 15, 1944, pp. 1-2. Another technique employed by the A.P.C. was a collective agreement whereby ministers would simultaneously offer either sermons on behalf of Palestine (see the *Program of the Greater New York Conference of the American Christian Palestine Committee*, October 14-16, 1945) or a specially-written prayer for an end to Jewish suffering (see *A Suggestion for Memorial Sunday*, May 27, 1945).

²³ A press release of the American Zionist Emergency Council, dated January 25, 1945, states these figures. A printed version of the *Petition*, issued earlier, contains only about 1,600 signatures.

movement at the summit of its popularity at the close of the Second World War.²⁴

Summary and Conclusions

These abundant manifestations of Christian concurrence with Zionist objectives are all the more impressive in the face of the relative paucity of anti-Zionist expression by non-Jews. Anti-Zionist Christian sentiment, which later found a home in the American Friends of the Middle East, was not widely articulated by notable groups or even individual spokesmen before 1948. Efforts by the American Council for Judaism to draw invidious distinctions between "justifiable humanitarian concern" for Jewish refugees and "rabid Jewish nationalism" yielded little more public testimony than a single thin pamphlet of statements by Christians challenging the Zionist position. Two similar pamphlets published by the Institute of Arab American Affairs contained statements by a mere handful of Americans, few of whom compared in stature with the host of influential Christians who had endorsed the Zionist program.²⁵ While those Protestant denominations that maintained schools and missions in the Middle East were evidencing increased concern for the Arab cause and while the Roosevelt Administration's Middle Eastern policy was frequently rumored to be dictated by pressures from oil companies "working stealthily behind the scenes," the fact remains that significant organized non-Jewish dissent from Zionist claims was not easily identifiable. To be sure, popular apathy and inertia, as well as unorganized and latent anti-Zionism, were probably much more prevalent than available published data indicate. This apathy, together with expressions of anti-Zionist hostility which Zionist leaders encountered from State Department officials below the rank of Secretary of State, can alone account for the many difficulties experienced by Zionist leadership in their efforts to influence official policy toward Palestine.²⁶

To return to the salient finding of this study—the fact of widespread and influential Christian support for the Zionist cause—a supplementary con-

²⁴ The American Palestine Committee's *A Christian Point of View on Palestine*, a portfolio of "exhibits testifying to Christian America's overwhelming support for a Jewish Commonwealth," was presented to the Anglo-American Committee of Inquiry early in 1946. This document also reprints many of the petitions and testimonials cited above.

²⁵ See the council's *Christian Opinion on Jewish Nationalism and a Jewish State* and the institute's *Papers on Palestine*, Vols. I and II.

²⁶ On anti-Zionism and the political struggle for Palestine, see Irwin Oder's unpublished dissertation, "The United States and the Palestine Mandate" (Columbia University, 1956); Frank E. Manuel, *op. cit.*, especially pp. 214–215, 322–324, 341–342; and Esco Foundation for Palestine, *A Study of Jewish, Arab and British Policies* (New Haven, Yale University Press, 1947), p. 1119.

clusion can be adduced, namely, that expressions of Christian Zionist sentiment were both genuine and indigenous to the American culture. That is to say, Christian concern for Palestine was not a commodity to be called forth whenever it served the purposes of Zionist leadership. Support for Zionist aspirations was often to be found in communities remote from centers of Jewish population concentration. Congressmen with no Jewish constituency to speak of were to be found in the front ranks of the Zionist struggle, ardently promoting the cause which was still rejected by a number of influential Jews. Moreover, while the attention of Zionist leaders was only intermittent²⁷ focused on the desirability of mobilizing Christian support, the record indicates that much Christian Zionist activity was self-generating. Christian Zionism was not mere response to Zionist proddings; it was as much, or perhaps more, a deeply-felt response to a number of compelling motivations and circumstances. Among these were a humanitarian good will toward the Jewish people, a belief in the moral rightness of the Zionist goal, a desire to fulfill previous international promises to the Jews, a wish to help realize Scriptural prophecies of the Jewish Restoration to the Holy Land, and a revulsion against the horrors of Hitler's policy of Jewish extermination.²⁷ Obviously, Christian Zionist activities cannot be attributed to any one such factor, certainly not to the universal acceptance of Zionist ideology by an extremely heterogeneous non-Jewish public. What is certain is that in the absence of a more plausible alternative to Jewish suffering, Jews and non-Jews alike united to pursue the Zionist program for the creation of a sovereign Jewish state.

The existence of this coalition of Jewish and Christian Zionist or Christian pro-Palestine interests decisively facilitated the acceptance of Zionist claims by American Jews. Lacking concrete proof for their allegations that the Zionist program would injure the status of American Jewry in the eyes of the general American public, anti-Zionist Jews most assuredly were weakened in their efforts to produce doubts among Jews about the wisdom of a Jewish state. Similarly, influential Jewish organizations, like the American Jewish Committee, that preferred a line of action independent of the Zionists, were caught up in the almost universal demand for prompt enactment of the Zionist program. Thus, late in 1943, Morris D. Waldman, executive secretary of the committee, conceded that:

On the matter of Palestine the Zionists have an invulnerable position, viz., the Balfour Declaration as originally officially interpreted; the sanction of the League of Nations (Mandate); the endorsement of Woodrow Wilson and both Houses of U. S. Congress; the united self-sacrificing efforts of all elements of world Jewry to build the Yishuv; the remarkable achievements of the Jewish settlers; the sym-

²⁷ On this point, see "Bases of Our Concern," *A Christian Point of View on Palestine*, p. 4; and Eric Goldman, *Rendezvous with Destiny* (New York, Vintage Books, 1958), p. 171.

pathy of most Jews for a Jewish Palestine; the weakness of opposition to the theory of a commonwealth or state on the ground that it would prove an embarrassment and danger to Jews outside of Palestine.²⁸

Later, after the committee had tasted several years of massive Zionist attacks for its allegedly "traitorous" and "un-Jewish conduct," another leading staff member urged a *rapprochement* with American Zionists, "especially in the face of the fact that almost no popular non-Jewish voice has been heard in this country against the idea of the Jewish State."²⁹

Measured both by direct support for the Zionist cause and by its indirect effects on American Jews, then, Christian Zionist activities made crucial, albeit unquantifiable, contributions to the growth of Zionist power and influence in the years immediately preceding the establishment of Israel.

²⁸ Confidential memo from Waldman to leaders of the committee, dated September 13, 1943, and located in Central Zionist Archives, Jerusalem, file ZA/15072.

²⁹ *Idem.*

Technology in the Andes

The impact of technology on the rural life of Bolivia, Ecuador, and Peru will be studied by ALLAN HOLMBERG, of Cornell, and associates under a grant of \$250,000 from the Carnegie Corporation. The study is an outgrowth of a program in which HOLMBERG and

co-workers aided in transforming a 30,000-acre feudal plantation into a democratically-operated community. Closely associated with the research are WILLIAM F. WHYTE and JOSEPH M. STYCOS, also of Cornell.

Soldiers at Work on Farm and in Factory

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AS THE SECOND WORLD WAR DRAFT began to cut into the civilian labor supply, farmers, industrialists, and government agencies began to look longingly at the large manpower pool available in the Army. They realized that the Army was concerned about production and therefore urged that it release soldiers to provide workers for hard-pressed farms and industries. As a rule, the War Department did not look favorably upon these requests. Its job was to train men for battle, not to supply manpower for industry. But, at times, it seemed expedient to depart from this stand, and the Army, most reluctantly, did agree on occasion to ship men back to civilian work.

There were several routes by which servicemen could return to farm or factory. When the soldiers involved were few in number, the Army transferred them to the Enlisted Reserve Corps. When this practice was used, they became civilians in all respects except one: they could be called back to active duty whenever the Army saw fit to do so. The military might discharge soldiers if the men could convince their superiors that their work was essential to the country because of reasons of "national health, safety, or interest." During the summer of 1943, more than 3,300 reservists were serving their country as key workers in industry rather than as soldiers.¹

The War Department provided other routes by which enlisted personnel might return to the labor market. At times, camp commandants allowed servicemen to work during afterduty hours at essential jobs—particularly in agriculture. For example, when during the late spring of 1943, a shortage

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¹ Major William McFadden, *Release of Key Industrial Personnel from the Armed Forces* (1945), *passim*; "Activities of Key Personnel 20 June 1942 to 1 July 1943," no author, in the files of Army Service Forces (ASF), Industrial Personnel Division (IPD), Survey of the Enlisted Reserve Corps. In this and following footnotes, the Army branch will be listed first, the division next, and the folder in which the item is to be found last. These items can be located at the Military Records Branch of the National Archives at Alexandria, Virginia.

of labor threatened to destroy the Maryland pea crop, the Commanding Officer of Fort Meade permitted more than 500 men to harvest, process, and pack the peas. This prompt action saved the crop.²

The Army also ordered complete units under their own commanding officers to harvest crops, process foods, or work at other jobs in which both time and the product were short. This work was done during duty hours. More than 5,000 men worked during the 1943 rainy season in North Dakota in order to save the grain crop. Another group of servicemen interrupted their military duties to help load critically-needed carbon black for a carbon company in Texas.³

These alternative methods of returning soldiers to the civilian labor market helped to relieve specific shortages of individual skills and satisfied a short-term need for manpower. When, however, labor shortages threatened to attack a whole industry for a considerable time, the War Manpower Commission, the War Production Board, and the industry itself began to request mass releases from the War Department. The Army felt forced to acquiesce to some of these demands.

The first and most impressive of the mass releases was the shipping of more than 9,000 men to work in the nonferrous metal mines. This proved to be a harbinger of many similar releases. Canneries, repair shops for farm equipment, the merchant marine, and West Coast aircraft factories all received soldiers during 1943.⁴

As manpower shortages grew more pressing during 1944 so did the demand for the release of soldiers. The late Robert P. Patterson, then Under Secretary of War, reluctantly responded to these requests and ordered the release of servicemen to work in heavy-tire factories and in forge and foundry plants. These men, like those released to other industries before December, 1944, were transferred to the Enlisted Reserve Corps. In order to obtain soldiers for their plants, companies requested former employees or they submitted lists and descriptions of vacancies they had. The Army then tried to find qualified men to fill the jobs. The enlisted men chosen had to be willing to be transferred and also had to be willing to give up their re-employment

² War Department Circular No. 230, 24 September 1943; Report, Manpower Division, War Production Council, 15 September–15 October 1943, pp. 51–54, in ASF, IPD, Report of Manpower Division; letter, Chief, Labor Branch, Third Service Command, to Major Boland, 22 June 1943; subject: Enlisted Personnel Employed in Food Processing in ASF, IPD, Farming Operations.

³ Memo, Chief, Labor Section, Production Division, for Deputy Vice Chairman for Field Operations, War Production Board, 20 January 1945; subject: Labor for Carbon Black Facilities in ASF, Production Division, 220.711 Release of Soldiers from U.S. Army; Wayne D. Rasmussen, *Agricultural Monograph No. 13*, "A History of the Emergency Farm Labor Supply Program, 1943–1947" (Department of Agriculture, 1951), pp. 95–99.

⁴ For a description of these mass releases, see Albert A. Blum, "Deferment from Military Service" (unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, Columbia University, 1953), pp. 218–231.

rights under the G.I. bill. The latter stipulation made many soldiers hesitate to accept release, especially in view of widespread hopes that the war would soon be over. This stipulation often made it difficult for the Army to find enough men to fill quotas for industrial plants.

Unwilling to let these quotas remain unfilled, the War Department began to furlough the men back to industry in December, 1944. Unlike those transferred to the Enlisted Reserve Corps, the furloughed soldiers continued under Army jurisdiction. They could wear their uniforms while at the factories and they remained subject to Army discipline. They were subject to courtmartial if they did not appear at work or if they reported intoxicated. As soldiers, they received military pay; as workers, they received salaries from the companies. Since the soldiers collected double pay and did not lose their re-employment rights, the War Department no longer had any difficulty in finding enough men to ship to plants. In fact, more men volunteered than were authorized for such service in the forge and foundry, the heavy-tire, and the heavy-artillery ammunition programs.

Companies in all parts of the country benefited from these releases. One release which especially helped the South occurred as a result of an unexpected shortage of tarpaulin for Army tents. The enemy's scorched-earth tactics in Europe had destroyed many structures that would have provided living quarters, and the hot, damp climate at some of the fighting fronts had shortened the life of the canvas tent. By the end of 1944, this type of canvas, known as cotton duck, ranked among the leading critically-short items in the country.⁵

Blame for the idle looms was placed on lack of manpower, not on a dearth of material. Some students of the industry attributed the shortage of cotton-duck workers to the low wages prevalent in the industry. In March, 1944, the cotton-textile workers' average hourly pay was \$0.60½, whereas that of workers in all manufacturing industries averaged a little more than \$1.00. Similarly, workers in manufacturing received \$20 more gross weekly earnings than did the cotton-textile workers. "And what has been the result?" rhetorically asked the head of the Textile Workers Union. He answered his own question by pointing out that the result had been a shortage of tarpaulin material and tire cord so critical that Julius Krug, chairman of the War Production Board, had seriously considered using sheet steel instead of cotton duck to shelter troops in the Pacific combat area.⁶

The Army tried to end this shortage of duck by expanding the labor force of the textile establishments by some 1,100 soldiers. The Army Service

⁵ Draft letter, L. Amberg to Representative R. L. Doughton, 13 February 1945; no subject, in ASF, IP, Cotton Duck Furlough Program.

⁶ See miscellaneous items in ASF, IPD, Duck, in ASF, IPD, Textiles, January, 1945; and in ASF, IPD, Duck, Webbing, Denim, and Twill, *Textile Labor*, January, 1945.

Forces also sent a group of officers to handle the multitudinous problems which accompany a manpower shortage. The furloughed soldiers and officers succeeded in increasing production.⁷

Management and labor suggested additional courses of action. The textile companies called for a raise in the price of cotton duck; Patterson responded with strenuous efforts to have the price ceilings lifted. The labor union insisted, on the other hand, that improved working conditions and higher wages would be a more lasting solution to the manpower problem. When the textile labor cases came before the War Labor Board, the Army labor branch took no stand on the question of wage increases; it merely informed the Board of the War Department's interest in the cases.⁸

Low wages and poor working conditions at the Southern plants caused dissatisfaction among the soldiers also. Large numbers of the enlisted men refused to be transferred to the Enlisted Reserve Corps at the end of their furloughs and forced the Army to recall them to active duty. As the war drew to a close, Patterson decided to end all of the release programs and called back to active duty all soldiers remaining at the cotton-duck and other industrial plants.⁹

Patterson and his superior, Henry Stimson, had steadily opposed in principle the expedient of releasing troops. They believed that it was a "perversion" of the selective-service process, and at best only a palliative. Stimson and Patterson both favored national service as the solution to the manpower problem. But since Congress never enacted a national-service law, the Army had to accept the unwelcome task of releasing troops. This imposed three duties on its officials: first, to decide which industries most needed help; second, to choose qualified men; and third, to see that the soldiers were used effectively.¹⁰ The following criteria were used as the bases of their decisions.

The Under Secretary of War, along with the Chief of Staff, decided after consultation with civilian agencies concerned with production and manpower which industries merited a release. The important factors in determining a

⁷ Letter, the Adjutant General to Commanding General, 19 December 1944; subject: Furloughing of Enlisted Men, in ASF, IPD, Cotton Duck Furlough Program; Memo, Under Secretary of War for Deputy Assistant Chief of Staff, GI, no subject or date, in ASF, IPD, Furlough Programs, General.

⁸ Letter, R. Patterson to C. Bowles, 12 December 1944, no subject, and letter, C. Bowles to R. Patterson, 18 December 1944; no subject, in ASF, IPD, 423-Duck; Memo, "KK" for General Somervell, 2 December 1944, no subject, and Memo, Assistant Quartermaster General for Commanding General, ASF, 1 December 1944; subject: Progress Report on Cotton Duck, in ASF, IPD, Duck, Cotton; see also ASF, IPD, Duck, Webbing, Denim, and Twill.

⁹ Memo, Director, Military Personnel Division for Commanding General, all Technical Services, 28 March 1945; subject: Transfer to the Enlisted Reserve Corps of Enlisted Men on Furlough for Employment in Vital Industries, in ASF, IPD, Furlough Program, General.

¹⁰ Letter, H. Stimson to F. D. Roosevelt and attached papers, 15 January 1945 at the Office of the Chief of Military History.

decision were whether an industry was essential to the war effort and whether the shortage was really in manpower rather than material.

After they approved the industry, the Army attempted to send qualified men. Commanding officers sometimes sent men without the requisite skills, but generally the released soldiers worked hard, knew their jobs, or learned quickly. They merited the accolades heaped upon them. One manufacturer enthusiastically reported how one of his reservists had "not missed a single day of work and [had] . . . averaged in excess of 65 hours of work each week. . . . If other men were to spend more time in the Army and then be returned to production, I am sure a lot of production problems would be solved." Another echoed this praise by telling how one soldier "worked like a Trojan. . . . He got a shot in the Army that I wish was contagious and that all young fellows would catch it."¹¹

Some unqualified men found their way into the plants too, of course. Sometimes the men acted as if they were on a real furlough and did not report to work. One such instance of unqualified personnel took place in Louisiana. A company was gladdened by the news that 14 first-class machinists were to be furloughed to it, but, in a steady stream, 126 men arrived. Of these, only 7 were trained to do the work required, and 8 were physically unfit for any work. Absence without leave and tardiness necessitated assigning an Army officer to the company to maintain discipline. The official report concerning the company concludes: "Company officials indicate no desire to retain any of the soldiers beyond their furlough date."¹²

The presence of soldiers in industrial jobs was expected to inspire their co-workers to produce more. It is impossible to judge the accuracy of this claim. The inspirational appeal no doubt was genuine, but it may have been vitiated by the workers' dismay when they saw their fellow employees leaving for the Army as a result of the draft at the same time soldier replacements were entering the factory. The fact that the soldiers received double pay, were not always qualified, and that their extra help might permit employers to pay less in wages to regular employees may have troubled the workers, even though the soldiers' presence showed the importance which the Army attached to the work being done.

Morale may also be measured by the reaction of other civilians to the pro-

¹¹ Letter, Lt. Col. Jenson to James Mitchell, 28 March 1944, in ASF, IPD, Release, 1944; teletype, Pittsburgh Ordnance District to Commanding General, Fourth Service Command, circa January 1945, in ASF, IPD, Heavy Artillery Ammunition Furlough Program; letter, L. Amberg to Senator J. Mead, 22 February 1945; no subject, in ASF, IPD, Duck, Webbing, Denim, and Twill; letter, Akron Special Truck Tire Manpower Project Team to IPD, 4 March 1945; subject: Production of Tires in Akron Plants, in ASF, IPD, Furlough Tire Program.

¹² Report on the Use of Soldier Workers . . . , no author, 21 February 1945, in ASF, IPD, Heavy Artillery Ammunition Furlough Program; McFadden, *op. cit.*, p. 56.

grams. Employers generally welcomed the releases. Servicemen helped solve manpower shortages; they weakened the bargaining position of organized labor; they helped increase production; and lastly, they were under Army discipline and had to work without complaint. Consequently, employers often placed them on the unpopular midnight shift, which became known euphemistically as the "military" shift.

Trade unions reacted somewhat differently. Labor leaders complained of not being informed in advance that a release was going to take place. They also reacted differently to the Enlisted Reserve Corps and furlough types of releases. Organized labor treated the reservists the same as other workers in the plants. Those furloughed, since they were still in the Army, required special treatment. The United Automobile Workers union, for example, offered them honorary membership.

Two possible sources of discord—union membership and strikes—fortunately worked out well. The War Department voiced no objection to each soldier's deciding for himself whether he wished to join the union. In case of a closed shop, subject to the union's protest, the Army either recalled to active duty those servicemen who refused to become union members or transferred them to another company. The soldier's hours of work and his right to use the grievance machinery were the same as for his civilian co-workers.

The War Department was fully aware that a strike in a plant where troops were working might place the whole program on dangerous ground. Military labor advisers gave conflicting counsel concerning what should be done with the released servicemen in case of a labor dispute. One expert suggested that soldiers not be allowed to work during a work stoppage and that they be recalled to active duty if the strike was prolonged. Others felt that the soldiers should be allowed to work if they wished but that they should be under no compulsion to do so. The Army, it was further suggested, should not remove soldiers from the strike area because this action might be interpreted as being favorable to labor. A compromise was decided upon. Each case was to be settled as it arose. As soon as a strike flared up, the Armed Forces representative at the project was to call Washington, and Army labor officers would decide on the course of action to be taken. Till then, nothing was to be done, since the Army did not want its soldiers to be thought of as either scabs or strikers.¹³

¹³ Letter, Colonel Gow to Secretary, Louisville Central Labor Union, *circa* January 1945, no subject, and letter, Lt. Gen. Styer to Senator Chandler, no subject or date, in ASF, IPD, Heavy Artillery Ammunition Furlough Program; letter, G. Addes to R. Patterson, 7 February 1945 and reply 18 February 1945 in Anderson files, Office of the Chief of Military History; Transmittal Sheet, J. Ohly for Major Viethier, 20 February 1945, in ASF, IPD, Furlough Program, General; "Policies and Procedures for Group Furloughs of Enlisted Men to Work in Industry;" no author, in Ohly files, Release; Memo, J. Ohly for Colonel Gow, 27 February 1945; subject: Furlough of Soldiers—Policy in Event of Strikes, and attached memo for Lt.

The Japanese surrender brought the release programs to an end. It has been estimated that between 17,000 to 18,000 men were furloughed back to industry and agriculture during the First World War; many times that number, though exact figures are unavailable, worked on farms and in the factory during the Second World War. Whether they worked in uniform or mufti, in units or as individuals, part-time or full-time, they all tried to spark an upsurge of production. To release soldiers en masse appeared to some an easy way to solve manpower problems; it can also be one of the most wasteful.¹⁴

Col. A. Raskin, no subject or date, in ASF, IPD, 327.22 Furlough; McFadden, *op. cit.*, pp. 39-40; letter, President of the United Automobile Workers (C.I.O.) to all regional directors, 30 December 1944, in ASF, IPD, Furlough Program, General; Memo, Captain O'Donnel for files, 4 December 1944; subject: General Somervell's Request for Aid of Unions . . . , in ASF, IPD, 1945 Reader file for December, Operations; letter, Grand President, Brotherhood of Railroad Signalmen of America, to Major B. Krim, 2 August 1945, no subject, in ASF, IPD Railroad Unions.

¹⁴ Selective Service System, *Special Monograph No. 6*, Vol. 1, "Industrial Deferment" (Washington, 1948), p. 28; Provost Marshal General, *Second Report to the Secretary of War on the Operation of the Selective Service System to December 20, 1918* (Washington, 1919), pp. 144-147.

In-Service Training for Public Officials

The University of Texas conducted its fifth Governmental Accounting and Finance Institute in Austin on April 20 and 21, 1959. This institute is an annual professional in-service training course for municipal finance-personnel. The first County Auditors' Institute was also held in Austin on May 21 and 22, 1959. Both groups were sponsored by the University's Institute of Public Affairs, College of Business Administration, and Division of Extension.

These institutes will be held again during 1959/60, and two new training conferences will be conducted—an institute for Tax Assessors, to be conducted by the Institute of Public Affairs and the Division of Extension on Dec. 7 and 8, 1959; and an orientation conference for newly-elected mayors and city councilmen, to be held by the Institute of Public Affairs and the Texas Municipal League in the spring of 1960.

A Review of Certain Aspects of Economic-Welfare Theories and Policy Criteria

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THE RECRUDESCENCE of writings in economic-welfare theory during the past two decades has sparked renewed interest in economic-policy criteria. Economists in all fields of special investigation have searched the theoretical mausoleums of the welfare economist for policy criteria that would endure the rigors of critical thinking. But the search has been short-lived and, while it continues in some areas, it has been abandoned in many others. There is little doubt about the usefulness of a firm framework on which to base policy, but the conflicting claims of alternative theories of economic welfare have been discouraging.

When the most prevalent theories of economic welfare are reduced to their essential axioms, each theory is seen to be only a set of assumptions. Each set of assumptions may be presented as a sequence of propositions that, if true or consistent with reality, give validity to that particular theory. It would seem, therefore, that the welfare theorist could simply turn to the economic statistician for verification or rejection of the propositions and build or modify the theory with only the veritable ones. Unfortunately, such simplicity is not always possible. Some basic assumptions cannot be proved or disproved even though the validity or invalidity of many can be demonstrated.

The assumptions of welfare theories either appear as value statements whose corroboration depends upon agreement or they appear as objective statements of facts. One purpose of this paper is to review the assumptions of the most prevalent welfare theories and to classify them according to these two criteria. The usefulness of welfare theories as a guide to policy proposals does not depend upon the number of assumptions that are classified as value statements; instead, it depends upon the criteria used to evaluate the assumptions. Value statements used as assumptions must be consistent with other value statements and also consistent with (though not the same as) state-

ments of fact. On the other hand, statements of fact require verification. After I have identified the assumptions in economic-welfare theories, I shall attempt to evaluate the usefulness of the theories using these two criteria.

The condensation of welfare theories has been classified and presented by theoreticians Arrow, Hla Myint, Little, Reder, and others.¹ These writers identified two major lines of thought and, with at least three variations in one of these major lines, four distinct economic-welfare theories were presented. Each theory contained a unique criterion for policy prescriptions, and using each criterion, it is possible to have four different policy recommendations for a particular economic problem. The four economic-welfare theories have usually been identified as the "Utilitarian-Welfare Theory" and three groups of the "New Economic Welfare Theory." The two major lines of welfare thought—the Utilitarian and the "New" Welfare—have separate origins and histories.

Utilitarian-Welfare Theory

The threads of thought which are components of utilitarian-welfare theory can be traced back to some of the earliest writings of man, but no systemization of these threads existed prior to the writings of Pigou. Pigou's *Economics of Welfare* represents the "culmination of a great line of economic thought. A whole series of economists, among them Dupuit, Walras, and Edgeworth deserve particular mention, had sought to find in utility theory a sure basis for prescriptions of economic policy."² The Pigovian welfare model, which was built for practical application rather than for logical stringency, departs in at least three significant ways from the traditional classical line.³ It extends welfare analysis from the physical to the subjective level by removing the classical economists' assumption that the amount of consumers' satisfaction is proportional to the amount of physical products in favor of the principle of diminishing marginal utility. Also, Pigovian welfare theory offers the scarcity approach to economic problems to replace the labor-value outlook,⁴ and nowhere does Pigou make essential use of Marshall's concept of consumers' surplus in his welfare analysis.⁵ And com-

¹ Kenneth J. Arrow, *Social Choices and Individual Values* (New York, John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1951); Hla Myint, *Theories of Welfare Economics* (Cambridge, Harvard University Press, 1948); I. M. D. Little, *A Critique of Welfare Economics* (Oxford, Clarendon Press, 1950); Melvin Warren Reder, *Studies in the Theory of Welfare Economics* (New York, Columbia University Press, 1947).

² J. R. Hicks, "The Foundations of Welfare Economics," *Economic Journal*, Vol. 49 (December, 1939), p. 697.

³ Hla Myint, *op. cit.*, p. 173.

⁴ *Ibid.*, p. 89.

⁵ Paul A. Samuelson, *Foundations of Economic Analysis* (Cambridge, Harvard University Press, 1948), p. 208.

pleting the departure, the Pigovian analysis can be called a general analysis of welfare since it deals with total satisfactions, whereas Marshallian economic analysis can be called a partial-welfare analysis since it is based on a concrete case-by-case approach.

In its final form the Pigovian thesis is: Because each person's additional expenditures are enjoyed less, welfare will be at the optimum when each individual's marginal expenditure yields the same number of utils—i.e., the same amount of cardinally-measured satisfaction. Any movement toward this optimum condition represents an increase in economic welfare. Thus,

it is evident that any transference of income from a relatively rich man to a relatively poor man of similar temperament, since it enables more intense wants to be satisfied at the expense of less intense wants, must increase the aggregate sum of satisfaction. The old "law of diminishing utility" thus leads securely to the proposition: any cause which increases the absolute share of real income in the hands of the poor, provided that it does not lead to a contraction in the size of the national dividend from any point of view, will, in general, increase economic welfare.⁶

Three essential assumptions are made in this welfare thesis. First, Pigou assumes the law of diminishing marginal utility of money income. Evidence that the law of diminishing marginal utility of money income operates is offered in terms of "observation and introspection."⁷ This assumption is vital to the Pigovian system because it provides a basis for measuring the difference in intensity of wants. A second feature of Pigovian welfare economics is the assumption that each individual tries to maximize his own satisfaction. This assumption has been described by Little as being the most essential element of Pigou's concept of welfare.⁸ A third and over-all Pigovian assumption is the existence of a fair degree of competition. This assumption is necessary for preserving the formal framework of the competitive optimum. Although he does not ignore monopoly and imperfect competition, Pigou accepts competition as a normal feature of the economy.

The validity of these assumptions has been questioned and, since they are vital to the Pigovian framework, the validity of the utilitarian theory as a policy guide is questioned. Pigou's assumption of free competition is considered unrealistic by Hla Myint: "In a world where imperfect competition is not a rare phenomenon but a normal feature and cannot be eliminated merely by abolishing institutional restraints on the free play of self-interest,

⁶ A. C. Pigou, *The Economics of Welfare* (2d ed., London, Macmillan and Co., Ltd., 1924), p. 78. Pigou uses the concept of national income here in terms of the classical concept of physical productivity—i.e., the flow of goods and services produced after maintaining capital intact.

⁷ L. G. Melville, "Economic Welfare," *Economic Journal*, Vol. 49 (September, 1939), p. 553.

⁸ Little, *op. cit.*, p. 9.

Professor Pigou's model is still unrealistic; nor would he claim it to be otherwise."⁹ For practical application to a specific economic problem, the assumption of free competition is questionable, for time-lags, conventions, and rigidities are characteristics and not exceptions of our economy. Competitive theory does not exclude time-lags, conventions, and rigidities, but it does hold such structural restraints to be exceptions rather than the rule.

The Pigovian model has been criticized because utilities are treated by Pigou as if they could be cardinally measured.¹⁰ Stigler assures us that cardinal measurement of utility cannot be obtained empirically; therefore, according to him, one is not justified in assuming that the utilities of various individuals can be summed or compared between individuals.¹¹ Hicks attacked the summing of utilities on "weighting" grounds, and Oscar Lange offered epistemological criticism on the ground that it lacks operational significance.¹² Since no empirical evidence has been submitted to the contrary, it appears that the assumptions that the sum of individual utilities constitutes total welfare is apparently a value statement.¹³ Furthermore, interpersonal comparisons of utility (and, therefore, the law of diminishing marginal utility of money income) can be considered nothing more than a value statement.¹⁴

If the criteria for policy offered by the utilitarian-welfare theory were accepted for any particular economic policy, certain value premises would have to be accepted as realistic. Accepting free competition as a basic feature of the American economy would be difficult. Prices have been administered to a degree both by private and public agencies since the First World War, and the only real issue appears to be which type of agencies *should* do the administering. The only condition of a competitive market which is applicable to most aspects of the American market is the proliferation of the number of producing units.

Equally nonapplicable to economic policy is the law of diminishing marginal utility of income. Even if there is an acceptance of the principle in general, a policy based on the assumption that low incomes of some recipients should be increased at the expense of high incomes of other recipients

⁹ Hla Myint, *op. cit.*, p. 189.

¹⁰ According to Pigou, the sum of the utility of individuals in a community is the total welfare of that community.

¹¹ George J. Stigler, "Social Welfare and Differential Prices," *Journal of Farm Economics*, Vol. XX, No. 3 (August, 1938), pp. 575, 585 f.

¹² Hicks, *op. cit.*, p. 700; Oscar Lange, "The Foundations of Welfare Economics," *Econometrica*, Vol. 10 (July-October, 1942), p. 215.

¹³ Hicks, *op. cit.*, p. 698, and Lionel Robbins, "Interpersonal Comparisons of Utility: A Comment," *Economic Journal*, Vol. 48 (December, 1938), p. 641.

¹⁴ This comparison, according to Pigou's article "Some Aspects of Welfare Economics" (*American Economic Review*, Vol. XLI [June, 1951], pp. 287-302), is based on "analogy, observation, and intercourse."

would involve a value statement shared by few unless the policy would not threaten in any way to decrease the level of productivity. Reversing the situation, it would seem highly questionable to assert that welfare has been increased if a rich person gets richer at the expense of an impoverished one, even though he enjoyed getting richer more than the poor one would have enjoyed becoming less poverty-stricken.

As a model the Utilitarian Theory has a certain amount of reasonableness, but as a guiding objective for establishing policy, it requires accepting value judgments that are not applicable to most economic problems. These "built-in" value judgments are not likely to be acceptable to the economist, the policy-maker, or the parties affected by the policy.

The "New" Welfare Economics

The economic writings on welfare which fall into this division are "new" in that they propose to establish optimum conditions of production and exchange without adding or comparing the utilities of different persons as the Utilitarians did.

The founder of this line of thought, Pareto, declares a general "optimum" condition to exist when no person can be put "on a higher indifference" level without causing someone to be put on a lower one. This optimum condition supposedly is determinable without resorting to utility-adding: instead, preferences of an ordinal nature are used. Three distinct groups of modern vintage have been recognized as off-shoots of the parent concepts of Pareto.

First Group.—"Given the pattern of income-distribution desired," this group attempts to show "the most convenient way of bringing it about."¹⁵ In each case involving economic policy a prospective situation is compared with the present situation. According to the members of this group, if the prospective situation will improve someone's economic position (that is, enable him to attain a position on a higher indifference curve) without causing someone else to be adversely affected (to be put on a lower indifference curve), economic welfare is increased by the change.

This group recognizes that no economic change affecting income distribution can be made without affecting someone in a relatively adverse way, and the "compensation principle" was devised to cover the theoretical gap. This principle, the most differentiating characteristic of the group, can be stated as follows: In a considered change from situation A to situation B where group *x* will gain and group *y* lose from the change, if group *x* is able to compensate group *y* fully for the loss, group *y* will incur in the change

¹⁵ Nicholas Kaldor, "Welfare Propositions of Economics and Interpersonal Comparisons of Utility," *Economic Journal*, Vol. 49 (September, 1939), p. 552.

and group x still shows a net gain, the change from situation A to situation B would increase economic welfare.¹⁶ The optimum organization of the economic system, according to this criterion, is "one in which every individual is as well off as he can be made, subject to the condition that no reorganization permitted shall make any individual worse off."¹⁷

This school of welfare writers disclaims making comparisons of individual satisfactions. They hold that when physical productivity—and thus aggregate real income—increases, it is *possible* to make everybody better off than before, or at any rate to make some people better off without making anybody worse off.¹⁸ Little attacks this approach by suggesting that a desirable distribution of income is just as essential for a community's welfare as an increase in physical productivity.¹⁹ The rich getting richer, at the expense of the poor, does not appear to increase the economic welfare of a community if the rich could but would not compensate the poor for their losses. Furthermore, it would be impossible actually to compensate or to determine the need for compensation of everyone and the amount of losses. To ascertain all losers and the amount of their loss would require a knowledge of everyone's "behavior map."²⁰ Even if people did have static behavior maps and they were available, analyzing 160 million of these maps would be a formidable task.

This criterion for change is held to be invalid also because of certain exceptional situations where it is impossible to decide which of two alternative situations is better; and one may get the paradoxical result that each situation is better than the other.²¹ At best this criterion offers only economic efficiency (by increasing net productivity) and no socio-economic considerations as a policy guide.

De Scitovzky expresses doubt about the applicability of policy recommendations on efficiency grounds alone. According to him:

One definite conclusion that has emerged from the welfare controversy is that while in some cases and in some communities the economist can make policy recommendations on efficiency grounds alone, in our society he cannot usually do so but must take into account also considerations of distribution and equity. When

¹⁶ For policy criteria it is not, according to this group, necessary for full compensation actually to be made. All that is required is the ability to compensate from the prospective or real gains.

¹⁷ Hicks, "Foundations of Welfare Economics," p. 701.

¹⁸ Kaldor, "Welfare Proposition of Economics and Interpersonal Comparisons of Utility," p. 550.

¹⁹ Little, *op. cit.*, p. 92.

²⁰ This is true since to increase a person's welfare is to place him on a higher indifference surface. The analysis of a person's level of indifference would require that all his choices be known.

²¹ Tibor de Scitovzky, "A Note on Welfare Propositions in Economics," *Review of Economic Studies*, Vol. 9 (November, 1941), pp. 77-88.

he does so, the economist necessarily introduces a value judgment into his recommendations.²²

This is in agreement with some of the earlier writings of Frank H. Knight. He points out that welfare economics inevitably leads to a consideration of standards of values, regardless of criteria or attempts to maintain ethical neutrality.²³

If one defines economic welfare as economic efficiency and assumes that the distribution of income will always be left intact, then the Kaldor-Hicks criterion (the criterion of this First Group) can be applied. However, since a given income distribution cannot be maintained even approximately intact, the criterion cannot be used without accepting assumptions that involve value judgment.

In view of the contradiction suggested by De Scitovzky, the failure to account for satisfactions except by definition, the breakdown of the "compensation principle" in determining gainers and losers and the amounts gained and lost of any particular person, and the lack of claimed ethical neutrality, criticisms of the First Group of New Welfare Economics appear to be as numerous and unanswerable as those of the Pigovian structure. The only useful critique for economic policy to be derived from this welfare theory is one of efficiency.

Second Group.—This group contends that the purpose of welfare economics is to seek the causes of satisfactions. It escapes the interpersonal comparisons of utility by assuming for explorational purposes that the intensity of individual wants is equal. This group admits the necessity of making value judgments in economic-welfare concepts because of the necessity of including income-distribution decisions. However, these value judgments are made on "reasonable" grounds and assumptions. And the ideal distribution of income is stated to be one which "probably" maximizes total satisfaction.

Abba P. Lerner has suggested that an equal distribution of money income is more likely to maximize total satisfactions in a community than any other distribution.²⁴ The condition of economic change to be satisfied is that "no part of the consumption goods or the income of the society shall go to any individual but the one who can obtain the greatest satisfaction from its consumption. If income is divided among the individuals enjoying it in such

²² de Scitovzky, "The State of Welfare Economics," *American Economic Review*, Vol. 41 (June, 1951), pp. 314 f.

²³ See especially Knight's "The Nature of Economic Science in Some Recent Discussions," (*American Economic Review*, Vol. 24 [June, 1934]) for his complete argument concerning the futility of ethical neutrality in policy proposals.

²⁴ Lerner, *Economics of Control* (New York, The Macmillan Company, 1944). This is the most complete work on his thesis.

a manner that this criterion is satisfied, then any change in the division would involve the substitution of a smaller (or at best an equal) satisfaction for each one that is lost, so that nothing could be gained by any change."²⁵ This value judgment is defended by Lerner as a "reasonable" one.

The welfare standard of this group is wanting for the same reasons that the standards of the First Group and Utilitarians are unacceptable. The group differs from the Utilitarians only by "denying" interpersonal comparisons of utility as a matter of fact and accepting intercommunity comparisons of satisfactions as a reasonable value statement. This change does not avoid the task of measuring utility. Nor does it have, or claim to have, objectivity. One cannot prove anything about the welfare of a community any more than one can prove anything about the welfare of an individual since both entail an ethical premise. Again, efficiency is the only useful criterion offered by this group.

Third Group.—This group agrees that ethical judgments are inseparable from welfare considerations. A. B. Wolfe states that "economics is in final analysis a branch of ethics,"²⁶ and Little insists that it is impossible to separate welfare conclusions from value judgments because welfare conclusions *are* value judgments.²⁷ But, instead of following value judgments that are implicit in the framework of a welfare system or a particular definition of economics, this group declares that value judgments must be made or "given" by someone outside the economic realm. Little refers to this someone or something as "superman."²⁸ Further, this group pays little attention to happiness or satisfactions except to commit to superman the prerogative of assigning such attention. Superman might decide that satisfaction and happiness are irrelevant to welfare. Or he might decide not only that they are relevant but that the total of individual happiness or satisfaction logically composes the welfare of society. The power of superman to set these ethical premises is unlimited so long as he is consistent. That is, if he says that *A* is better than *B* and *B* is better than *C*, he must say that *A* is better than *C*.

The welfare economist, according to this group, should be concerned with interpreting the inferences from a "given" set of ethical premises handed down by superman.²⁹ In the absence of an agreed-upon designation of "superman" the economist must assume such a "given" set of ethical premises, set them forth explicitly, and explore their logical deductions and inferences in terms of real individuals, places, and situations.

²⁵ Lerner, *op. cit.*, p. 25.

²⁶ Wolfe, "On the Contents of Welfare," *American Economic Review*, Vol. 21 (June, 1931), p. 221.

²⁷ Little, *op. cit.*, p. 117.

²⁸ *Ibid.*, p. 87.

²⁹ In a democracy some would designate "superman" as being the majority of individuals; in a fascist state he might be designated as a dictator; in either, superman might be defined as the Deity.

This procedure has been criticized by Hicks and Robbins as "unscientific."³⁰ But welfare is not a science. It may be reflected that it is the number and type of value judgments, and not the degree of ethical neutrality which mark the differences between welfare systems.

Any welfare system should consider a desirable distribution of income since this is one important means of achieving economic welfare for the main part of a community. And when we consider a desirable distribution of income, we leave the field of science altogether.³¹ According to members of this group, "It is a legitimate exercise of economic analysis to examine the consequences of various value judgments, whether or not they are shared by the theorist, just as the study of comparative ethics is itself a science like any other branch of anthropology."³² This criticism of Hicks and Robbins appears invalid when a broader definition of economics is given than its formulators would allow.

The welfare theory of the Third Group of New Welfare Economists is flexible in its application to economic problems. According to its theory, any number or type of value judgments can be made and the consequences or logical deductions can be explored fully. They are value judgments that the reader may or may not accept, and a policy for bringing about these or other conditions could be defended only on the grounds that the policy would be a consistent and efficient way of producing the conditions. The value judgments per se should not be defended by the researcher unless he wants to drop his role as an economic analyst and play the role of "superman."

Although there is no lack of application potential of the criteria of the Third Group, neither is there lack of divergent value statements. Economic fact and fiction have notoriously thrived and, unless the economist is content to develop only systems of logic, the value statements should correspond to characteristics of the economy. The multitude of conflicting value statements, rapidly changing data, and indefinite boundaries of the field of economics tend to make the criteria of the Third Group of limited use as a policy guide.

Economic-welfare theory, not unlike other economic theory, has undergone a type of mutation which has failed to establish satisfactory economic-policy criteria. During the past few decades welfare writers have claimed validity in definitional criteria for policy, optimum-condition criteria resulting from the maximization of axioms expressed both in mathematical and nonmathematical terms, and value-statement criteria demanding only

³⁰ Hicks, "The Foundations of Welfare Economics," p. 699. Lionel Robbins, "Interpersonal Comparisons of Utility: A Comment," p. 641.

³¹ Samuelson, *Economics: An Introductory Analysis* (New York, McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1948), p. 14.

³² Samuelson, *Foundations of Economic Analysis*, p. 220.

subjective consistency. All of these criteria have limited use as a guide in establishing economic policy. The value-statement criterion has some advantage in application for the mature and experienced economist but it offers little help to the novice.

The superiority of the Third Group criterion lies in the fact that the policy-maker using it does attempt to be intellectually honest by making the value judgment explicit. All theories of welfare have implicit or explicit value judgments as desirable objectives which must be accepted if the theory of welfare is accepted. Therefore, this criterion is no less analytical or "scientific," and it is far better for the reader and critic that these value judgments are realistic and are stated explicitly.

The result of using the criterion of the Third Group would be a continuation of what has been accepted for some time. With no guides to policy except consistency, the researcher would continue the practice accepted among most economists during the last decade—of spelling out the elements of value judgment involved in policy appraisals, and allowing the reader the opportunity to accept or reject the conclusions based upon the extent of coincidence with his values.

Some Present Opinions on Social Ethics and Economic Science

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THIS STUDY was an attempt to measure, and indicate the trend of, contemporary expert opinion on the relationship of ethics to economics. The question is, do most living economists agree with the contention of some of their predecessors that economics is pure, positive science, having no proper or necessary connection with the formation of social ethical values? Or, on the other hand, can the economist, as a professional economist, properly deal with the "ought," the "good," or the "bad," in economic matters?¹

To this end, I offer the results obtained from a questionnaire study conducted on the subject. Two groups were chosen as being most directly concerned: the economists themselves, of course, and the philosophers, who have special interests in the field of ethics.

Names of economists were selected at random from the *Handbook* of the American Economic Association. Their responses represent a cross section of economists—Federal Reserve Board men, business-association economists, and so on—though most replies came from academic economists in all classes of universities in widely scattered locations. Likewise a random sample of names was obtained from the *Journal* of the American Philosophical Association. All the answers from this group were from university teachers. Questionnaires were sent to seventy-five economists and to fifty philosophers. Of these, forty-nine economists responded, giving a 65-per-cent return, and twenty philosophers, giving a 40-per-cent return.

Many took the trouble to add comments in addition to answering the "objective type" questions. Table 1 records the responses to the questionnaire. With regard to Question 1 (Do you believe economists as such should make public-policy pronouncements . . . ?), here are some typical remarks from economists:

¹ For a clear definition of the problem, see Campbell R. McConnell, "Advocacy Versus Analysis in Economics," *Southern Economic Journal*, Vol. XXII (October, 1955), pp. 145-163.

TABLE 1

Questionnaire Responses from Forty-Nine Economists and Twenty Philosophers

	<i>Economists</i>				<i>Philosophers*</i>					
	<i>Yes</i>	<i>No</i>	<i>Un-decided Blank</i>		<i>Yes</i>	<i>No</i>	<i>Un-decided Blank</i>			
1. Economists as such should make public-policy recommendations	47	2	0	0	17	1	0	2		
2. Teaching is more effective when normative statements are used	38	2	4	5	11	0	6	3		
3. Making of normative statements by an economist indicates he is being "unprofessional"	2	44	0	3	0	19	0	1		
	<i>Occa- Often sionally Rarely Never Blank</i>				<i>Occa- Often sionally Rarely Never Blank</i>					
4. Do you make statements with explicit socio-ethical implications in teaching?	22	22	3	1	1	7	13	0	0	0

* Philosophers were asked to respond on the questionnaire in the way that they thought economists should respond as economists.

If not they, who should?

What other excuse exists for teaching economic principles? Like anything else, this can be overdone.

Theoretically, the economist "should" not make public policy recommendations, but after weighing the alternatives, I conclude that he is the one most qualified to do so in economic matters.

Here are the comments of some of the philosophers on the same question:

I believe that any citizen who has specialized knowledge has a duty to the community to make publicly available those parts of his knowledge which are relevant to public policy.

Yes and no. "Yes," as economists who are also men; "no," as economists who are merely *as such*. Any economist who stops being a *man* should make *no* pronouncements, even in economics. As a *man* who knows, he cannot, ought not, refrain from being helpful.

Question 2 (Do you in your teaching make normative statements—i.e., those having explicit socio-ethical implications—about economic matters? Additional comment) elicited these economists' responses:

My presentation cannot avoid expressing my basic convictions.
I never make such statements except in my role as a citizen.

The philosophers' replies to the same question:

Since economics deals with human needs and distribution of goods, it *inevitably* raises ethical questions.

If I were teaching economic theory, I would remember that the very *purpose* of theory is to solve practical problems.

In a democracy every citizen has the obligation to make such value judgments, and especially social scientists.

Another question asked whether or not the respondent thought that the subject was so well settled that it renders the making of normative statements an unprofessional act on the part of the economist. It is repetitive, to some extent, of questions already asked on the form, but this was done purposely to be certain that the checked answers would reliably measure the individual's belief. There were some interesting written comments. Again the economists first:

Those trained in an earlier period when "objectivity" and "impartiality" were established as desirable and possible of attainment in the social sciences tend toward the above position [i.e., that normative statements are unprofessional]. However, the impact of the sociology of knowledge and psychological motivation studies has influenced many young economists. They would therefore—and correctly—argue with the above.

What is *really* unprofessional is the writing of textbooks containing *implicit* value judgments by authors who pretend to an "objectivity" that they do not possess.

The philosophers were unanimous in checking the "No" blank on this question—i.e., an economist is not unprofessional when he makes normative statements. Here are some written comments on the question:

The more sure the knowledge in the field the more justified are normative statements.

Unprofessional only when absoluteness of certainty is claimed. Effective and integrated use of moral principles and reliable evidence should be practiced.

The last question on the form made provision for any additional comments the respondents cared to make. Some of these additions were a page or more of typewritten material; typically, though, the "additional comments"

ran no longer than two or three sentences or a paragraph. The economists wrote, in answer to this catch-all question:

How does one include and exclude without value judgments? What determines what one believes to be important?

Let the economists be heard. They may be slightly less ignorant and perhaps less biased than other groups that might be mentioned.

As economic scientist, the economist cannot advocate or recommend policy for which he claims the authority of science.

Here are some of the philosophers' final remarks:

It would appear that "educated" men should distinguish between the areas in which they are competent and those in which they are not; then give expression to their best judgment in the areas of competence, and trust to others for the rest. This is a paraphrased version of Epictetus' rule for happiness.

In general I believe a teacher who makes normative comments is better as a teacher and more honest than one who hides his true opinion. I believe, of course, that students should be allowed their own opinions and expression of them.

The comments by and large verify the results of the tabulation of the checked answers. Some qualified their checked answers by their written comments, as has been seen. The most frequent qualifications to assenting that economists as economists may make normative statements were, (1) he may, assuming he has competence or adequate special knowledge in the field, and (2) he may, assuming further that he does not give such pronouncements as absolutes.

The smallness of the sample; a total of sixty-nine, (forty-nine economists, twenty philosophers) may indicate the need for caution in the interpretation of the results. On the other hand, since replies were anonymous, the responses are probably valid ones.

The study indicates that those who hold the position that the economist is not to offer "a single syllable of advice" are definitely in the minority today among economists and philosophers in this country.

Book Reviews

Edited by

H. MALCOLM MACDONALD

ANSELM L. STRAUSS: *Mirrors and Masks: The Search for Identity*. Glencoe, Ill., The Free Press, 1959. 186 pages. \$4.00.

This is an outstanding synthesis and elaboration of the symbolic interactional perspective in social psychology. Beyond providing a clearly written and lively exposition of those major themes of Dewey, Mead, and Cooley relating to communication, the self and social interaction, the author fulfills his admirable interdisciplinary aim of tying social psychological theory "back to the social organizational heart of sociology and anthropology."

The "mirrors" of the title refer, of course, to the idea of self-appraisal summed up in Cooley's jingle: "Each to each a looking-glass/Reflects the other that doth pass." Basic to the self-image is the linguistic symbol related to man's ability to engage in abstract reflection and thus treat himself as both subject and object. Self-communication is further related to interpersonal communication, since the self arises, and is modified, in group participation.

The "masks" of the title refer to role-playing, but the author's analysis is not restricted to the conventional treatment of role enactment in culturally defined statuses, nor does he limit his concern to the less formal Meadian theory of role-taking and role-playing.

Not only do people act in socially defined ways; they also organize their behavior according to values ascribed to the social worlds of people who are absent or nonexistent. Furthermore, during the interactive process the individual is constantly responding to himself, or, as the author paraphrases Reizler, "the 'I' can respond to many 'me's': among them the me of yesterday, tomorrow, several minutes ago, the me of the immediate present, and the me in general."

A long-standing criticism of this school of social psychology is that it is too abstract, or too complex, to be operationalized in the type of empirical research deemed suitable by many behavioral scientists today. Strauss suggests this in his criticism of much contemporary theory: "Interaction, as I have described it, appears to be a fantastically complex web of action and counteraction. It *is* complex; and there is a point in stressing its complexity. A scientific vocabulary fashioned along the lines of 'cues' or 'stimulus and response' or 'the unconscious' or 'needs and drives' or merely 'role-playing' and 'status' and 'self-conceptions' will tend to bypass rather than handle its intricacies."

Despite the complexity of his theoretical framework, the author illustrates many of his concepts with material drawn from research in medi-

cal sociology, in which presumably he is presently engaged. The validation, or refinement, of the concepts in this book through such research is eagerly awaited by all those who share the author's belief that symbolic interactionism is the most comprehensive theory of human behavior presently available.

Norman R. Jackson
University of Oklahoma

SIR ANDREW COHEN: *British Policy in Changing Africa*. Evanston, Ill., Northwestern University Press, 1959. 116 pages. \$4.50.

Virginia Thompson and Richard Adloff: *French West Africa*. Stanford, Cal., Stanford University Press, n.d. [1958?]. 626 pages. \$8.50.

Here are two very different books on topics of keen interest to students of international affairs. One book provides the wise and profound reflections of a practicing administrator of a British African colony; the other is a major scholarly study of one of the critical areas of French Africa.

Sir Andrew Cohen has long been a professional career officer of the Colonial Service and brings to these reflections as much experience of British policy in Africa as anyone could do. The theme of his volume is that Africa is changing rapidly—politically, economically, and socially—and that new and vigorous demands are being made upon the colonial powers, in consequence of which British policy also has had to undergo some significant alterations. His explanation of how this transformation has come about and how British policy is being adapted to meet the new challenge is of first quality and

of high importance. Of these two aspects of the problem, his explanation of the modifications in British policy are of really prime importance; he is rather less successful, I believe, in dealing with the changes in Africa itself and especially with the rapid growth of African nationalism. But he is certainly right in saying what is not always recognized—that Britain's postwar policies have been "new not in content but in emphasis and speed of application."

Postwar colonial policy has placed emphasis on three principal developments: financial aid through the Colonial Development and Welfare Acts; an extension and remodeling of local-government institutions; and a tremendous acceleration of the constitutional advancement of individual colonies toward self-government. These changes have been induced both by British and by colonial initiative, or, in Cohen's phrase, by the "interrelated pressures" from both. Sir Andrew takes pride in the British achievement and his pride shows through on every page; but it does not impair his judgment or deter him from acknowledging weaknesses and failures where they occur. Above all, he concedes—indeed, he insists upon—the grave British failure before the war in assuming that the colonial administrators had an indefinite time for the accomplishment of their long-established policy of leading the colonies toward self-rule. What has happened since the war is primarily the shattering of this assumption and the replacement of it by a wide-ranging imperial effort to adjust to the new ones that must be made.

French Africa is another matter. And the second book under review is another matter too. In a very different

way, it performs an equally valuable service with respect to a part of the French Empire. Here is an encyclopedic treatment of French West Africa, its peoples, languages, religions, social organization, economics, and political institutions. It is the first systematic effort in English to describe the background, institutions, and problems of this vast and significant area.

French colonial policy has traditionally been quite different, of course, from the British. It has offered to the colonial dependencies a prospect not of ultimate self-government but of integration into a larger French community. The model has been not Canada but Algeria, not responsibility but assimilation. For the colonial area this has meant a slow process of development and the objective of an eventual unification (in a form never accurately described) with the mother country (*métropole*). For the individual it has meant a social egalitarianism for those who accept French civilization as their "common frame of cultural reference."

But this appeal was primarily to individuals. The African community itself had little to show for its loyalty and little to look forward to, since assimilation was necessarily a slow process. Moreover, even the French came to wonder whether this was a sufficient goal for the colonial community in the twentieth century. The rise of African nationalism, the widespread condemnation of colonialism, and the growing inability of France to maintain a colonial hegemony in the face of these discontents ultimately required a reassessment of colonial policy. With the Fifth Republic, the tendency toward self-determination has received its newest manifestation in the referendum of

December, 1958. The virtual unanimity with which the African colonies accepted the De Gaulle constitution, and the continued association with France which that acceptance implied, is a testimony to the success of this new approach.

But where this new approach will lead, none can yet say, for De Gaulle's colonial policy is phrased in the same vague terms of his economic and Algerian policy, and the future holds this secret secure. Thompson and Adloff can offer no help, for their book stops short of the Fifth Republic.

The French have recognized, too, that economic progress is an essential concomitant of political advance. The government has provided many schemes and much money for the economic development of the colonies, and its investment program (F.I.D.E.S.) has provided aid for economic development along the lines of, and in amounts somewhat greater than, the British Colonial Development and Welfare Acts.

Even so, West African prospects of substantial economic development are rather slim. She needs capital badly but possesses little that will attract it, and the conditions "that appear to be required for large-scale industrialization . . . are not present." French public funds are thus likely to be the only large source of capital available for economic development. This, as much as anything, explains the continued willingness of African leaders to remain with the France of the Fourth Republic and helps explain the almost unanimous decision to stick with the France of the Fifth. Economic progress is clearly discernible, as the authors take pains to show, but just as clearly much more remains to be done.

But politics and economics are not by themselves sufficient. An adequate program of educational and social development must be pursued; and in many ways this is the most difficult problem of all. The assimilation of African societies to European practices and values runs head-on into the deep-rooted traditional culture of the African. Europeanization, in the last analysis, is neither possible nor acceptable. But some accommodation must somehow be made. French Africa is not France and French Africans display an increasing reluctance to become black Frenchmen or to allow that objective to stand as the goal of policy. Africans are justifiably proud of their distinctive culture and nowadays strongly oppose policies or legislation that would suppress or ignore it. But this laudable determination creates many problems, as Thompson and Adloff clearly show. Political science assigns far greater weight than it once did to the persistence of traditional institutions and must recognize as a political *datum* the intense desire of Africans to maintain their "authentic and unique Negro culture." The authors, in one of their most trenchant passages, draw attention to the incongruity of this insistent aspiration when viewed against the background of the demand for rapid political and economic progress. The Africans, in the words of the authors, "have not yet accepted the fact that in a mobile society undergoing rapid change the country cannot stagnate socially while making progress politically and economically."

And there is the dilemma, not only for the French but for colonial administrators everywhere—and perhaps

for underdeveloped countries throughout the world.

William S. Livingston
The University of Texas

ROY G. FRANCIS (ed.): *The Population Ahead*. Minneapolis, University of Minnesota Press, 1958. 160 pages. \$3.75.

HENRY D. SHELDON: *The Older Population of the United States*. New York, John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1958. 223 pages. \$6.00.

HAROLD A. PHELPS and DAVID HENDERSON: *Population in Its Human Aspects*. New York, Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1958. 512 pages. \$6.00.

The almost simultaneous publication of these three books is indicative of the strong resurgence of interest in the field of demography. Taken together, the books are also indicative, if not wholly representative, of many of the problems currently engaging the attention of demographers and those in other fields whose interests impinge on population trends and problems.

The Population Ahead is an excellent example of crossdisciplinary interest in the problem of population growth. It is based upon nine papers given at a conference on population problems, held at the University of Minnesota in 1957. Among the contributors one finds not only demographers but also a sociologist, economist, anthropologist, zoologist, botanist, physiologist, and geographer. The conclusion, made up of commentaries on the papers, represents an almost equally wide range of disciplines.

Most of the papers bear in one way

or another on the "Malthusian problem,"—the relation of population growth to available resources, present and future. An excellent paper by Whelpton, for example, describes recent trends in the growth of human populations, with emphasis on the United States. Another, by Deevey, surveys the current knowledge of growth in a wide range of subhuman populations. Other papers, particularly those by Broek and Keys, are primarily oriented to questions of the future need for, and availability of, resources, with particular attention to food. One paper, "The Genetic Future of Man," by Karl Sax, surveys some of the qualitative implications of population growth. Social scientists may have some reservations about his strong biological orientation toward some aspects of this problem. One the whole, the papers are characterized by a rather pessimistic outlook; in this sense they tend to be "Malthusian." Keys's paper is an exception; he ends it by stating flatly that "... the difficult problems of feeding the world and its growing population are not technological; they are economic and political."

As its title indicates, *The Older Population of the United States* is a study of population composition. It is one of the tremendously valuable volumes on the population of the United States which the Social Science Research Council has sponsored in cooperation with the Bureau of the Census. Almost half of the book is made up of statistics drawn from the 1950 census and earlier ones. Topics include the changing age structure, geographic distribution, the labor force, occupations, living arrangements, housing, and

age and income. The text chapters are for the most part parallel discussions of these topics. Probably the most original contribution of the book is Sheldon's attempt, in the second chapter, to account for the relative contributions of births, mortality, and immigration to the present (1950) size of the older population. He finds, contrary to what he says is the "most popular explanation of the increase in the number of older persons," that births have been more important than the decline in mortality. However, this analysis must be approached with the clear understanding that he is primarily concerned at this point with the number rather than the proportion of older persons in the population.

The book by Phelps and Henderson is a text, and as such, of course, covers a much wider range of topics much more superficially than either of the volumes discussed above. Its parts are those one usually finds in a population text: growth, distribution, composition, balance or stability, quality, and perspectives (trends, theories, policies). It differs from other texts on the general subject chiefly in the amount and kind of attention given to "quality." The chapters included under this heading are those on health, mental defects, and the socially inadequate (alcoholics, illiterates, gamblers, criminals and delinquents, etc.). It is useful to have numerical information on these problems brought together. Unfortunately the amount of such information available is disturbingly thin in some cases and nonexistent in others. At such points (e.g., gambling) the discussion is hardly demographic. It is also unfortunate that the chapter on health ap-

appears to have been completed just before the publication of preliminary reports from the 1957 U. S. National Health Survey.

H. J. Friedsam
North Texas State College

MERRIMON CUNNINGGIM (ed.):
Christianity and Communism: An Inquiry into Relationships. Dallas, Southern Methodist University Press, 1958. 136 pages. \$4.00.

The seven essays which comprise this volume are preliminary contributions to a long-range project on the relationship between Christianity and communism. The idea for the studies originated with the Board of Social and Economic Relations of the Methodist Church, and the initial phase was carried out through the co-operation of the Perkins School of Theology, Southern Methodist University, with assistance from the Ford Foundation. Except for the introductory essay by the editor, the chapters of the book were presented as pilot papers for the two colloquia at which the project was initiated.

In general the essays suffer from the usual handicaps attendant on getting a project of this type under way: some of the subjects (presumably assigned) force the writers to adapt to an artificial framework, and often more consideration is given to the possibilities of future research in a particular area than to the problems delineated by the topic. The latter fault is conspicuous throughout contemporary social science, of course, and is probably inevitable in papers that attempt to introduce a subject within narrow limitations of space.

The essay "Is Communism a Christian Heresy?" by Herndon Wagers, and its converse, "Is Christianity a Communist Heresy?" by Das Kelley Barnett, illustrate the problems. Both authors seem compelled to confine their arguments to logical categories drawn from Christian and communist doctrine and, in the setting, these statements do not do justice to the subjects. A philosophy of history which interpreted communism as an outgrowth of modern Gnosticism might provide an answer to the former question, and an examination of the Marxian conception of history in relation to the origins of Christianity would seem to be required in any satisfactory response to the latter.

Although most of the essays are confined to an articulation of familiar points of view, one or two presentations merit special attention for subtlety of interpretation or force of logic. Schubert M. Ogden's chapter, "The Concern of the Theologian," issues to theologians a clear and impelling call to attend to the responsibilities of perpetuating and expanding the knowledge of Christian truth. And Edward Taborsky's treatment of "Recent Communist Policy Shifts," although too brief, contains some suggestive insights into the relations between the rigidities of communist ideology and the flexibilities of Soviet policy. Although they vary widely in underlying assumptions and substance, each of the essays implicitly or explicitly calls attention to the fact that man universally concerns himself with the problem of existence and that even the social scientist cannot evade the consequences of his personal conception of existential truth.

William C. Havard
Louisiana State University

AVRAHM YARMOLINSKY: *Road to Revolution*. New York, The Macmillan Company, 1959. 369 pages. \$5.95.

M. K. DZIEWANOWSKI: *The Communist Party of Poland*. Cambridge, Harvard University Press, 1959. 369 pages. \$7.50.

FRED WARREN NEAL: *Titoism in Action*. Berkeley, University of California Press, 1958. 331 pages. \$6.50.

"Of making books there is no end," a statement emphatically true of books on communism. Any ignorance among the American public on communism and its problems arises from indifference and not from any lack of available reading material. Fortunately the last decade has seen a really objective and scholarly literature replacing the previous often ill-considered and emotionally motivated attacks upon the "Red menace." It is in the category of "objective" works that the three books here considered belong.

Yarmolinsky discusses the personalities and programs associated with seventeenth- and eighteenth-century Russian radicalism. Starting with Radishchev's *A Journey from Petersburg to Moscow*, the author moves to an analysis of the Decembrist Uprising, and then to the development of the Populist movement in its various forms, concluding with an account of the ultimate frustration of the "People's Will" and the mounting influence of Marxian revolutionary thought in the 1880's. The story is a fascinating one, placing in juxtaposition, as it does, the always small, always idealistic associations of young romantics against the massive, cumbersome, and often stupid bureaucracy of the czars. The Populist

movement, to which the author devotes most of his attention, is shown to have embodied a mixture of ideas and theories culled from the French Revolution and the writings of the Utopian socialists and anarchists, plus indigenous Russian elements expressive of an idealized concept of the historic role of the *Muzhik* and the *Obschchina* and the value of terrorist methods. The book is thus both a study in individual and group motivations and an account of the revolutionary programs and activities of the time. Its significance, however, is deeper than this. A careful reading of the work helps to explain the peculiar nature of the program and tactics of revolution developed by Lenin and the Bolshevik faction. Lenin's tactical and theoretical deviations from classic Western Marxism have generally been recognized as resulting from the exigencies of the Russian situation and in this work the reader can observe the planting of seeds which eventually came to fruition in 1917. The book is marred by one weakness: a totally inadequate citation of the sources used.

Dziewanowski is unduly modest in titling his *Communist Party of Poland* "An Outline of History" and in referring to it in his preface as "a preliminary sketch"; it is more than this, being in fact the only comprehensive treatment of the development of the Party available in English. Far from being an "outline," it is on occasions almost encyclopedic in its details. The author begins with the appearance of Marxian socialism in Poland in the nineteenth century, proceeds to a discussion of the Communist Party and its vicissitudes during the period of the two world wars, and con-

cludes with an analysis of the development of the United Polish Workers Party (under Russian domination) through the storm and stress of the post-Stalin period, the Poznan Riots, and the return of Gomulka to power.

In addition to presenting an authoritative history of the evolution of the Party, the book provides a basis for a comparative study of the problems confronting Communist parties in the satellite countries. A useful contrast may be made between the Communist Party in Poland and in Yugoslavia. In both countries the Party was confronted with a strong national undercurrent in the masses and a well-established tradition of freedom and individualism, both of which were hostile to the centralizing policies of the Moscow politbureau. In both countries the Party was forced in different ways to come to terms with these realities. The Polish Party's task was complicated by the intense Roman Catholicism of the population, the dearth of intellectual leadership due to the decimation of the intelligentsia by both the Nazi and by the Red Terror, and finally by the obviously limiting factors of the economic and geographic dependence of Poland on the USSR. Gomulka emerges as the Party leader who, within this frame of reference, is attempting to adjust the demands of the Russian politbureau and the international Communist "line" to the temper, aspirations, and potentials of his people. To the extent that he is successful we see emerging a disguised form of "national communism" whose example may have profound effects upon the future internal independence and international position of the satellite countries. Gomulka

might well remember, however, that he who sups with the Devil needs a long spoon.

The last of our trilogy deals with the rise of communism in Yugoslavia. The author presents a factual and well-documented analysis of the administrative, economic, and political situation as it has evolved under the leadership of Tito. Many of the same problems faced by Gomulka are present in Yugoslavia, but Tito's ability to openly forge an independent Communist movement was, for geographical and other reasons, more successful. Following the break with Moscow, Tito's Party was able to put into effect a certain amount of democratization of the Party and a decentralization of the economy. For example, Worker's Councils in Yugoslavia have assumed a more significant role than in Poland, and a real effort has been made to disentangle the Party and state bureaucracies. In both countries the abandonment of collectivization has been pushed through against "Stalinist" opposition. In Yugoslavia, however, a considerable reinterpretation of Marxian theory has likewise taken place, involving the abandonment of Stalinist concepts of party organization and a rejection of the Soviet experiment as being the only correct method for the achievement of socialism. This has enabled the Yugoslavian Party to appear less doctrinaire than the Polish and has left its theoreticians more flexibility in their attempts to explore "new roads to socialism." Neal is not excessively optimistic about the ultimate results of the Yugoslavian move toward liberalization and democratization of state and Party control, but he has clearly delineated the

theoretical lines along which such an attempt is being undertaken.

These three books all have one element in common: they are expressive of man's unending striving for a better world. The first deals with the frustrated attempts of a comparatively few enthusiasts to overthrow the czarist autocracy in the name of human betterment and freedom. In the other two works the same pattern repeats itself under changed conditions. The stabilization of communism in the USSR and the imposing of Stalinist regimentation upon the satellites led to disillusionment and revolt. The idealists were awakened to reality and found it distasteful. Once more the search is being made for better means to realize the goal of emancipated mankind and the immediate enemy is again the Russian taskmaster. The Yugoslavian Communists have been able to challenge the Moscow hegemony more boldly and to develop a more independent revolutionary theory than have the Polish leaders, but in both countries the problem is the same. In neither Party is communism repudiated, but it is being re-evaluated in terms of its achievements in human betterment. Perhaps these movements stand to the next generation as the Populists did to their successors, that is, as harbingers of a new approach to social problems in which greater consideration will be given to the rights and freedoms of the individual and less to the perpetuation of an oligarchy of power. In any event, whether these movements within the Communist camp succeed or fail, their future fate is portentous for the West.

H. Malcolm Macdonald
The University of Texas

JEROME K. MYERS and BETRAM H. ROBERTS: *Family and Class Dynamics in Mental Illness*. New York, John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1959. 295 pages. \$6.95.

In beginning the research on which this book is based, the researchers posed two questions: (1) "Are social and psychodynamic factors in the development of psychiatric illness related to a patient's position in the social class structure of American society?" (2) "Is mobility in the social class structure associated with the development of psychiatric illness?"

In seeking the answers to these questions, they developed a research design to order data on fifty patients selected from two nonadjacent social classes in New Haven. These patients were from Classes III and V on the Hollingshead scale, and were considered as representing two distinct "subcultures" in American society, or at least in New Haven. Class III is made up of the lower middle-class and Class V ranks at the bottom of the "blue-collar" classes.

The design is represented by a four-cell table, which is split one way into two social classes and the opposite way into two diagnostic groups. The Class III categories contain seven schizophrenic males and six psychoneurotic females; in Class V, there are six persons in each of the four categories. Thus the comparisons are not those of normal with abnormal persons, but of schizophrenic with neurotic patients by classes, except where the factor of mobility is concerned. At this point, the researchers have to compare the mobility of the patients with that of the general

population of the same age groups—22-44.

The authors view intrafamilial relationships as the situation focus of class *presses* which lead to *stresses* in the children and which, in turn, are associated with neurotic and schizophrenic disorders. They have outlined clusters of factors related to home situations in the development of these disorders in both sexes in the classes studied. These clusters are outlined very clearly in hundreds of numbered statements in the Appendix. For example, the fathers' role cluster in the background of Class III patients indicates that (1) the fathers' role in the home was ambiguous; (2) fathers were at home a good deal of their leisure time; (3) fathers participated in family life to some extent; (4) fathers were dominated by their wives; and (5) patients questioned their fathers' masculinity and authority. Then, the fathers' role was given in contrast in a similar manner for Class V.

The researchers have stated clearly and commendably the limitations of their research processes; but, in spite of these limitations, they have produced a valuable research report which should have a wide interdisciplinary interest.

Austin L. Porterfield
Texas Christian University

EDWIN F. BEAL and EDWARD D. WICKERSHAM: *The Practice of Collective Bargaining*. Homewood, Ill., Richard D. Irwin, Inc., 1959. 735 pages. \$7.25.

This book is one of a number of textbooks on collective bargaining. In the Preface the authors state that they are

approaching the subject of collective bargaining "in a new way." Their approach is to make a sharper distinction between craft-union and industrial-union bargaining. Labor economists for a number of years have noted differences in bargaining between craft and industrial unions, but any analysis which attempts to sharpen these differences is, of course, welcome. In some areas, however, the reviewer feels that the differences in the types of bargaining have been exaggerated in order to support their novel approach. For example, they state: "Wages are not and have never been the central issue for the factory employee. The vital issues are seniority and the control of tempo, work-speed, or effort." The industrially unionized would be surprised to learn that wages are only a secondary issue to them.

Several errors may be noted. Their book states: "One segment of the working force is forbidden to strike: government employees. Here the ban, while generally accepted even by the unions of those it affects, derives not from statute law but from executive interpretation of public policy." Section 305 of the Labor-Management Relations Act of 1947 clearly outlaws strikes by federal government employees. Also the authors incorrectly state that since bargaining rights are guaranteed labor, organizational strikes are a thing of the past. In their words, "now it is settled simply by majority vote of the workers in the enterprise affected. If later they go on strike, it is for other reasons." The United States Department of Labor lists organizational strikes as one of the five main types of strikes in this country. Strikes for recognition alone without wage or other additional issues ac-

counted for 7 per cent of the strikes in this country in 1958.

The main strength of this book lies in its excellent treatment of the newer issues of collective bargaining, such as pensions, health and welfare plans, supplemental unemployment benefits, and adaptation to automation. The main weakness is its failure to discuss adequately the basic factors in wage negotiations, such as cost of living, profits, comparative wages, etc.; only productivity is adequately handled—in an appendix, a reprint of another author's work. The over-all economic impact of unions is not discussed, either. In spite of the several defects that mar the book, it is one of the better collective-bargaining texts in existence today.

Paul A. Brinker
University of Oklahoma

WERNER LEVI: *Australia's Outlook on Asia*. East Lansing, Mich., State University Press, 1958. 246 pages. \$5.00.

Levi is here summarizing, in a generally chronological manner, the evolution of such alert and articulate opinion as existed in Australia concerning that country's interests and relationships in Asia, and the changes which have occurred in official policies during the twentieth century.

The summary ranges from early pre-federation worries about invasion by Asians and the seizure of nearby Pacific islands by European imperialists, through two world wars, to the age of the Colombo Plan and SEATO. One is left with certain general impressions and conclusions:

1) The expressed prefederation fears that a divided Australia would be the victim of Asian hordes or imperialist

rivalries rested more on fancy than on fact, but they helped to forward the cause of federation.

2) With federation achieved, Australia launched upon more than thirty years of existence marked by a near total unconcern about Asian matters. Even during the first World War most of the Australian interests focused on the Near East and on the European theater. The major exceptions, of course, were Hughes's successful efforts to obtain the former German Territory of New Guinea as a mandate, and the negotiations surrounding the end of the Anglo-Japanese alliance and the Washington Conference treaties of 1921.

3) The country's physical isolation, the internal preoccupations of its people, and especially the confident reliance upon Commonwealth membership and institutions obscured for most Australians the significance of certain developments which were to have great effect upon their security; e.g., the growing strength and desperation of Japan, the weakness of British defenses in Asia, and—given the scale of the Axis threat—the inability of Britain to provide the Commonwealth with global protection.

4) The Japanese aggression following Pearl Harbor shocked Australians into a re-examination of their situation and resulted in the decisions, among others, to seek a more positive role in Commonwealth affairs and in direct diplomacy outside the Commonwealth, to develop a much closer association with the United States—the only power able to take up Britain's protective role in the Pacific—to seek a continuing tie with New Zealand, and, when the opportunity arose, to establish direct contact between Australia and Asian gov-

ernments and to endeavor to create in the eyes of Asians an acceptable and distinct identity for Australia as a country with a legitimate interest in Asian affairs.

This was easier to visualize than to accomplish. There was domestic opposition to some of these lines of policy. There was some friction with the British government as Australia sought a more independent role. United States and Australian views of their mutual interests did not always coincide. Asian governments persisted in regarding Australia and its interests as more European than Asian. The "white Australia" policy was (and is) embarrassing. Security considerations overcame pro-Asian efforts when the Indonesians and Dutch clashed over western New Guinea. Still, there is ANZUS and SEATO, there is the Colombo Plan (for which Australia can take much credit), there are Australian diplomats and trade commissioners in every Asian capital and major city, there are large numbers of Asian students in Australia's universities and technical institutes, and there is on the part of knowledgeable and concerned Australians a sense of direction, or control—and considerable confidence—which was lacking not much longer than a decade ago.

James R. Roach
The University of Texas

THOMAS GILBY: *The Political Thought of Thomas Aquinas*. Chicago, University of Chicago Press, 1958. 357 pages. \$5.00.

A "complete account" of Aquinas' "contribution to political philosophy . . . in its historical and theological setting" could be a useful book for uninformed

students even though it provided nothing new for specialized scholars; but this book scarcely fulfills the claim of the jacket blurb. Part I, "The Influences at Work," fills about one-fourth of the pages and presents a survey of the social and intellectual context of Aquinas' thought in chapters entitled "Theologians," "Jurists," "Landed Men and Wanderers," and "Philosophers." A good deal of relevant material is touched upon, but the selection of material (especially in the chapters on jurists, which fails to exploit recent studies in this area) seems rather haphazard. The style is rambling and repetitive; periods, persons, and schools of opinion are not always sharply distinguished; and, while many of Gilby's summary statements are historically sound, a number of others are so broadly or so loosely phrased as to be unclear or incorrect. Gilby shows considerable sensitivity to the variety of medieval attitudes and values, but his presentation of the political and legal concepts and institutions that surrounded Aquinas' work is deficient in structure and precision.

Part Two, "The Development in St. Thomas," has several virtues and may be useful to the generally informed student of political theory whose acquaintance with theology is slight. Gilby is evidently more at ease in dealing with ethical than with institutional issues. The relations between Aquinas' theology and his political thought are developed; passages from his predominantly theological writings are brought into illuminating juxtaposition with material from the well-known "political" writings; Gilby pays considerable attention to the dates of the works cited and the changes in Aquinas' thought over the years; he has considerable

feeling for Aquinas' personality and bent of mind. The discussion of Aquinas on law is good, and there is good material in the discussion of his view of the relation of individual and group—though the treatment here is less than complete. But the discussion of Aquinas' preferred form of government, of his view of the role of the people, and his doctrines on disobedience, resistance, and deposition seemed to this reviewer inadequate and somewhat incoherent. Gilby's general interpretation of Aquinas strongly stresses his conceptions of the autonomy of the political order, of the nondeductive character of the governmental and legislative process, and of the nonorganic character of the state. While questioning a number of Gilby's specific statements, this reviewer concurs in his general views on these points; there are, however, other opinions. Where interpretation of Aquinas is controversial, divergent opinions are rarely directly confronted in this book; the exposition proceeds chiefly through assertion, description, and commentary, with a minimum of textual analysis and with rather meager footnoting.

Ewart Lewis
Oberlin College

JOHN R. STOCKTON, STANLEY A. ARBINGAST, RICHARD C. HENSHAW, JR., and ALFRED G. DALE: *Water for the Future*. Austin, Bureau of Business Research, University of Texas, 1959. 716 pages. \$3.00.

This monograph is a five-book set of four volumes, Volume III being in two parts.

The study was planned to ascertain existing demands for fresh water for

industrial and municipal use in the Texas Gulf Basin, and to estimate the growth of that demand during the next fifty years. Surplus water above these needs can be used in agriculture.

The Texas Gulf Basin as here defined includes most of the vast Coastal Plain that occupies the eastern and southern parts of the state. The western portion of the lowland along the Rio Grande and several counties in northern Texas which are drained to Red River are excluded.

Volume I, titled *Resources of the Texas Gulf Basin*, appraises the resources available for development in that area. The geographic regions, topography, climate (including rainfall), soils, and native vegetation (especially forests) are discussed, and various mineral resources (oil, gas, lignite, salt, iron ore, limestone, shell, and clay) are treated. Some characteristics of the population are portrayed, and such basic industries as cotton and livestock production, forestry, fishing, mining, and manufacturing are discussed.

In Volume II, titled *Economic Potential of the Texas Gulf Basin*, the growth of Texas is estimated to 1975, and growth curves are projected to the year 2010. The authors state that by 1975 Texas could have 12,087,000 inhabitants, and by projecting the growth curve to 2010, they arrive at the figure of 19,000,000. The income of the population is calculated through these periods, and the prospect for employment in agriculture, in such mineral industries as oil, gas, and sulfur, and in various kinds of manufacturing is discussed.

In Volume III population and employment projections are made for sixteen trading areas into which the au-

thors divide the Texas Gulf Basin. Each area is centered around one or more principal cities, and its growth projection was determined by appraising the basic economic activities of that area. The growth indicated is what might be expected to occur if local resources are fully utilized and if water supplies are adequate.

Volume IV presents the amount of industrial and municipal water used in 1954 in the sixteen trading areas of the Texas Gulf Basin. The increasing amounts needed during the next fifty years were derived from the projections of population and industrial development previously made. Tables and graphs for the different areas show that vast increases in the water supply will be needed throughout the Texas Gulf Basin if the population grows, industrialization continues, and the standard of living rises as is generally expected.

William Trout Chambers
Stephen F. Austin College

RICHARD H. LEACH and REDDING S. SUGG, JR.: *The Administration of Interstate Compacts*. Baton Rouge, Louisiana State University Press, 1959. 256 pages. \$4.50.

Since at least the 1920's there has been a steady development of interest in the interstate compact, a device for the creation of a new unity out of the diverse views and practices of two or more states in our governmental system. This interest is reflected in the appearance of new compact agreements and in the publication of a variety of reports, analysis, and views on the interstate compact, in general and in particular.

Although the use of interstate compacts predates the Federal Union, only in relatively recent times have these agreements resulted in the creation of interstate administrative agencies.

This book presents the first account of the actual operation of interstate agencies. It is the result of a project started by Leach and Sugg as staff members of the Southern Regional Education Board, and first limited to the compact agencies in which the states party to the Southern Regional Education Compact participated; it was later broadened to include all operative compact agencies in the United States. Thirty interstate agencies were studied and have been categorized as *Technical, Study and Recommendatory, and Operating*.

The authors come to the following general conclusion: "Interstate compact agencies have proved themselves by their performance and, more than that, they have demonstrated the utility of the interstate compact as an instrument of state policy. In the years just ahead, the states will no doubt make even more use of that device than they have to date." This generalization is supported by more particular conclusions and is also limited somewhat by a citation of needs and problems.

Unquestionably, this is a major contribution to our knowledge of the range both of possibilities and problems of the interstate compact. What we now need is a fuller understanding of the economic and political forces which converge at a particular point in time to support the creation of an interstate compact agency and its continuing operation. We have some of this knowledge for particular compacts but not in

a comparative sense. Perhaps the authors will turn their attention to this most fascinating but difficult problem.

Wilfred D. Webb
The University of Texas

ALLAN M. CARTTER: *Theory of Wages and Employment*. Homewood, Ill., Richard D. Irwin, Inc., 1959. 193 pages. \$5.00.

This essay is only incidentally concerned with employment theory. Its basic objective is the periodic overhauling of the wage theory once recommended by Hicks.

The beginning chapters trace the rise of marginal wage theory, with some mention of the criticism directed against it. No real effort is made to cope with the criticisms.

Preliminaries over, Cartter tackles the fact that traditional wage theory is difficult to apply to unions. These "institutions" suggest monopoly to some, administered wages in an administered-price world to others. Neither version is compatible with marginalistic competition ideas.

The Cartter solution is reconciliation by osmotic absorption. By devising some new curves and modifying the standard mathematical apparatus a bit, he brings the unions into the corpus of marginalism.

The upshot is in sound Western TV tradition. The Good Guy, Competitive Market, gets the Bad Guy, Union Monopoly: "Summarizing the material of the preceding chapters, it might be said that the traditional view of the role of market forces in the determination of the levels of wages and employment appears to be as appropriate today as it

was twenty-five—or even fifty—years ago. . . . There is little evidence . . . to suggest that wage rates in general deviate further from the competitive norm today than they have in past decades."

R. B. Melton
North Texas State College

SEYMOUR MARTIN LIPSET and REINHARD BENDIX: *Social Mobility in Industrial Society*. Los Angeles, University of California Press, 1959. 309 pages. \$5.00.

This book was initiated as a collection of essays by the authors. Although additional chapters have been added and the original papers have been substantially modified to fit the format, at times the reader is aware of a very decided break of thought between chapters.

In the second chapter of Part I, a comparative analysis is made of studies of job mobility in different parts of the world. A convincing array of evidence is presented in support of the idea that intergenerational occupational mobility is high, as well as essentially the same, in most industrialized countries despite the popular notion that it is substantially higher in the United States. This will come as no surprise to students of social class and mobility, however, since Sorokin and others reached similar conclusions some time ago. The authors' comparative analysis of studies of occupational mobility is beset by some serious methodological difficulties. For one thing, these studies depend upon a "common sense" evaluation of occupational status. Although the authors are aware of the problem and have sought to circumvent it by an explicit distinc-

tion between manual and nonmanual occupations, it remains questionable as to whether or not they have succeeded. Further, the experimental design, sampling techniques, and classifications used in these national surveys of social mobility are quite dissimilar. Nevertheless, the similarity of the results makes one suspect that they are valid. In any event, generalizations are warranted only if one bears in mind the limitations.

Chapter 4, "Social Mobility and the Business Elite," was written by Reinhard Bendix and Frank W. Howton. In addition to reporting the results of a study of the American business elite made by the authors, four similar studies are analyzed. Although conclusive evidence is not presented, the findings raise serious doubt about the validity of the widely accepted hypothesis that the American social structure has become progressively more rigid in the last two hundred years.

In Part II a substantial amount of significant data concerning both intra- and intergenerational occupational mobility is presented. The data were collected in Oakland, California, in 1949 as part of a study of labor mobility; thus the study was not specifically designed for the use to which it is put. The net result is that some rather disturbing methodological limitations appear concerning experimental design, sampling techniques, wording of questions, omission of pertinent questions, classification of data, etc. Moreover, the reviewer feels that the study is further limited by the likelihood that both horizontal and vertical mobility is disproportionately high on the West Coast, especially in the large cities.

Part III synthesizes Parts I and II

and deals with both the practical and the theoretical implications of the study of social mobility in a very scholarly fashion. Sociologists in particular, and social scientists in general, are likely to agree that the assets of this volume far outweigh its liabilities and that it represents a valuable contribution.

Byron E. Munson
The Ohio State University

JOHN F. DUE: *Sales Taxation*. Urbana, University of Illinois Press, 1958. 396 pages. \$5.75.

Within the past three decades, sales taxes have skyrocketed to importance in American public finance. Now utilized by thirty-three states and more than a thousand local governments throughout the United States, general sales taxes are relied upon for a large share of the public revenue. Even as this is written in 1959, several states which are in the throes of financial difficulty have increased the rates and enlarged the bases of their sales taxes, and other legislatures still in session are considering the adoption of such levies for the first time.

Although the sales tax has become an increasingly popular performer and is today very much in the limelight of the public-finance arena, comparatively few major treatises on the subject have appeared within the past two decades. Since the first major studies by Buehler, Haig, and Shoup were published in the 1930's, the only volumes on sales taxes prior to this one were the Blakeys' *Sales Taxes and Other Excises* in 1945 and Oster's *State Retail Sales Taxation* in 1957. With the appearance of this

work by Due, however, there is no want for a major work in the field; it both updates the earlier works and fills in many gaps previously left open.

Indicative of the latter accomplishment is the author's detailed treatment of the various kinds of sales taxes imposed by foreign governments. These include the single-stage taxes, such as the manufacturers' sales levies in Canada and the British Purchase Tax, the multiple-stage taxes of Germany and other western European countries, and the value-added tax of France. Although these foreign examples occupy approximately two-thirds of the contents of this work—and may therefore make the volume most welcome by public-finance economists and other academicians—there is adequate coverage of the domestic experience at the state and municipal level. Brief treatment is given to the federal excise taxes of the United States and proposals for a federal sales tax in this country, and there is a balanced discussion of the cases for and against sales taxation, the burden distribution of the tax to various income classes, and a general evaluation of it as a source of government revenue.

With respect to the last, Due concludes: "On the whole, the sales tax must be regarded as a second-best tax—one to be employed only if various circumstances make complete reliance on income and other more suitable taxes undesirable." Even if one accepts this verdict, however, it is apparent that the "various circumstances" are present and operative to some degree in many areas of the United States today, particularly with respect to state tax systems. This being the case, Due's timely treatise deserves an audience much larger than the

usual one of tax students and specialists. It can well be used by the political policy-maker as a basis for more rational decisions in an area which promises to have vigorous activity, increasing complexity, and significant consequences in the years just ahead.

Lynn F. Anderson
Institute of Public Affairs
The University of Texas

DORIS GOODRICH ADAMS: *Iraq's People and Resources*. Berkeley, University of California Press, 1958. 160 pages. \$3.00.

This book is a revision of a doctoral thesis in economics. The author spent a year in research and Arabic studies in Washington, D.C., and nineteen months in Iraq and other Middle Eastern countries before writing the dissertation. The study deals not only with population and resources but also with Iraq's economic development and its potentialities, programs, and obstacles. Miss Adams' objective is "the formulation of conditions under which real per capita income will rise, taking account of historical backgrounds and the special institutions found in transitional economies." The basic data for most of the book are derived from the census of 1947, the first modern census in Iraq's history. These data are supplemented by other occasional statistics assembled by the Iraqi government and technical-assistance agencies as well as secondary sources and small-scale studies and interviews by the author.

Assigning priority to the development of agriculture, the author concludes that "the planners have little

choice but to move toward rationalization of all economic processes, attempting through wise planning to replace the institutions that now obstruct development by others that are compatible with a rising level of living."

One may disagree that "a self-sustaining increase in per capita income" does indeed constitute the conscious goal of the majority of Iraq's primarily rural population, which admittedly is not as yet politically or socially mobilized. Nor was this necessarily the overriding aim of the elite then in power. By thoroughness of scholarship and depth of insight the author has avoided many of the pitfalls of those who study cultures different from their own. Still she seems to be, like most economic theorists, expounding theories of how economics works *as if there were no politics*. The recent revolution may serve as a reminder that there always is politics. It seems that in the case of Iraq a rising level of income expanding horizontally and parallel to the politically conscious part of the population constitutes a more realistic goal.

This brief book is a major contribution to the understanding of Iraq and the best available work on that country. Excellent statistical tables add to its attraction. Some unavoidable gaps in empirical data can be filled in as the results of the second population census, conducted in 1957, become available. The book is a must for the students of all social-science disciplines interested in Iraq and the Middle East and is recommended for those who are interested in underdeveloped areas in general.

Gholam H. Razi
University of Houston

URSULA M. VON ECKARDT: *The Pursuit of Happiness in the Democratic Creed*. New York, Frederick A. Praeger, 1959. 414 pages. \$4.50.

The title of this book promises far more than the author fulfills. The shortcomings do not arise from an overconstriction of scope, for Miss Eckardt's expressed purpose is to interpret and re-evaluate the doctrines of human rights, particularly as they were articulated by Jefferson in the Declaration of Independence. She further proposes to raise the potentially interesting question of the continued relevance of these doctrines (and especially the architectonic right to the pursuit of happiness) in a world dominated by the science of Darwin and Freud rather than of Newton and Locke. The main trouble is that so much time is occupied in packing unnecessary luggage that the destination seems to have been lost.

Every source acknowledged by Jefferson as a contribution to his conception of hedonism (and a great many unacknowledged sources whose relevance may be inferred) is summarized. The result is a rather tedious, and frequently repetitive, exposition of the confused merger of empiricism and rationalism that was made to serve as a jerry-built substitute for an adequate metaphysics, epistemology, and ethical theory of the Enlightenment. Space does not permit quotation of the numerous passages in which contradictions and unjustifiable transitions long exposed by critical scholarship are accepted at face value by the author. Thus the rationalistic precepts of the natural-law tradition are superimposed on a (supposedly) empirically ascertained egoistic psychol-

ogy, without reference to Hume's devastating critique. Again, the fact that men do appear to desire pleasure is allowed to stand as proof of the desirability of happiness in plain defiance of G. E. Moore's strictures against the naturalistic fallacy. Egoism and universalism are wedded without benefit of clergy; and although duties are secondary to rights, obligations which would demand the self-sacrifices of a saint are blandly set forth as conditions of social existence. Finally, the dichotomy drawn by the statement that "Darwin's discoveries . . . led to the modern Age of Unreason as surely as the discoveries of Newton provided the foundation for the Age of Reason" seems to miss the point that a civilization which predicates all its values on the methodology of the natural sciences is forced to forgo the idea of the independence of moral experience which the author seems to advance.

In view of this potpourri of unpromising influences it is not altogether surprising that near the end of the book the author asks us to accept the convenient fiction of maintaining that "what is metaphysically doubtful, or even false, may be morally and politically right." A political ideology may be founded on such a premise, but a philosophy of politics requires a more adequate comprehension of its materials. That some of the liberal doctrines of Jefferson have a content that goes beyond the limits of explanation offered by relativism and positivism seems clear, but the work at hand offers more in the way of consolation than confutation of the latter doctrines. Above all, the author shows that, whatever else he may have been, Jefferson was something

less than a political philosopher of the first rank.

William C. Havard
Louisiana State University

EUGENE DAVIDSON: *The Death and Life of Germany*. New York, Alfred A. Knopf, Inc., 1959. 422 pages. \$5.75.

Few events in a country's history have been so thoroughly documented and recorded for posterity as that of the occupation and politico-economic revival of Western Germany. Some of the best of these studies are quite limited in scope, dealing with specialized problems or particular episodes, and are written by either professionally trained social scientists or persons who were active participants, writing from their own vantage points. Neither Davidson nor his study falls into this category.

Of the more popular general accounts which purport to deal broadly with the developments in postwar Germany, most suffer from "impressionism" and superficiality. Davidson's study falls into this category in the sense that it ranges broadly over the events occurring in Germany since 1945 and is popularly written, in the best sense of the word. But here the comparison ends, for his account is neither impressionistic nor superficial. The outstanding merit of his book lies not in the presentation of startling insights or original interpretations (few of these will be found) but in the degree to which he has digested an extensive array of primary and secondary sources as well as a limited number of personal

interviews, upon all of which his study is based. The result is a balanced and engagingly written history of postwar Germany. Major, but not exclusive, attention is focused on Western Germany.

The least satisfactory portion of this study is found in the first two chapters, in which an attempt is made to survey the views of both the Western and Soviet policy-makers as they planned and initially implemented the occupation of their respective zones. Here one finds, in spite of the author's qualifications, statements and implications which give undue and distorted weight to the "Red conspiracy" interpretation of the American occupational policies. "... the higher councils of the New Deal were peculiarly open to Soviet influence." "He [Alger Hiss] was but one among many high government officials who were in later years to be accused and some of them convicted of having acted against the interests of the U. S. in behalf of the Soviet Union." "Hull thought [Harry Dexter] White 'a very high class fellow.' " Whatever short-sightedness may have characterized the American occupational policies, these and other statements by Davidson tend to support a "scape-goat" explanation of our errors, which the reviewer believes cannot be justified. Notwithstanding this criticism, Davidson has written one of the best popular histories of postwar Germany.

Ronald F. Bunn
The University of Texas

OSCAR E. ANDERSON, JR.: *The Health of a Nation: Harvey W. Wiley and the Fight for Pure Food*. Chicago, University of Chicago Press, 1958. 333 pages. \$6.00.

The subtitle of this book describes it accurately. The title itself does not, for curiously enough the long fight of Harvey W. Wiley for the adoption of food and drug legislation, the author makes clear, was waged not under the banner of health but of morals. Wiley believed the customer ought to get what he thought he was buying, even if a cheaper substitute would not hurt him, and that the honest labeler ought not have to compete with the dishonest one.

Anderson presents with fine clarity and control of his material a case study of the bitter, sprawling, often invisible warfare that precedes the adoption of a new major public policy. More than anyone else, Wiley, chief chemist in the Department of Agriculture for twenty-nine years, was the chief general for the loose alliance of forces that finally succeeded in passing the Pure Food and Drugs Act of 1906. Beginning quietly enough with official reports of his tests of foods and drugs, Wiley ultimately utilized a virtuoso's repertory of political and public-relations tactics to mobilize public opinion in support of his campaign for regulation and against the powerful interests he necessarily antagonized. He won, after several partial victories in Congress, when the publication of Upton Sinclair's *The Jungle* and other exposés of the meat-packing industry raised a public clamor for regulation that could not be denied.

Needless to say, that was not the end of the story nor of Wiley's part in it. At least as interesting to the student of politics as the fight for legislation is the account of the internecine struggle over enforcement policy within the administration itself. As head of the bureau charged with enforcement, Wiley

fought against any administrative concessions to the affected industries, a role which endeared him to the public far more than it did to his political superiors. In 1912, Wiley resigned at the age of sixty-eight. Temporarily disenchanted with the Republican Party, he wanted to campaign for Woodrow Wilson, and he believed that as a private citizen he could continue to be effective in the cause to which he had dedicated his life. This last period seems anticlimactic. Although successful as a lecturer and writer, Wiley, like many another old reformer, eventually lost his capacity to keep up and spent his last energy refighting the old battles with which he was so familiar.

The principal question which might be raised about this workmanlike job is why the author chose to write a biography. This is almost exclusively the public life of Wiley. There are hints that this man, who at sixty-six married for the first time a woman half his age and became apparently a successful husband and father, might have had personal problems worth exploring, but Anderson does not do it. He is candid, and balanced in his judgments; his picture of Wiley is fairly drawn and convincing. Nevertheless, he does not get much below the surface. The substantial merit of the book lies not in the character delineation but in its sure, deft reconstruction of the complex policy-making process. In the performance of this task the focusing on one man is an effective device so long as that man is at the center of the storm. But what many readers will wish is that Anderson had offered his conclusions, however tentative, on the process he has described. They may feel the loss of that

to be a fairly high price to pay for what they have learned about Mr. Wiley.

Ralph K. Huit
University of Wisconsin

RICHARD L. MEIER: *Modern Science and the Human Fertility Problem*. New York, John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1959. 263 pages. \$5.95.

Most books dealing with the subject of excessive human fertility appear to be designed chiefly to create an awareness of the seriousness of the population problem. This book goes much further, being a comprehensive scientific study of the entire problem both in its sociological and medical aspects. The author's broad background in chemistry plus extensive studies in the social sciences has enabled him to write an unusual book. Studies of the social sciences and specialists in physiology and pharmacology will find it a most valuable contribution in a relatively underdeveloped area of study. Because of the author's insight and imagination and his consideration of so many related problems and possibilities, the book is far easier to read than to review.

There is a discussion of the advantages an oral contraceptive would have over devices now in common use and a review of the research efforts which have been made to develop such a drug. Apparently there is a good possibility of developing an effective, cheap, safe, and quickly reversible contraceptive drug within the next decade or two. Even assuming the development of such a drug, it appears that the task of introducing any contraceptive method and

persuading people to use it effectively is costly. Meier emphasizes the need for studies of cultural factors influencing the acceptability of such a drug, citing problems which have been encountered in Puerto Rico and in other areas where organized efforts have been made to cope with the problem of excessive fertility. Revealing comparisons are made between estimated costs and benefits in various economic and cultural situations. A section is devoted to the need for, and methods of, creating in society satisfying lifetime roles which do not include parenthood.

I think the author may have over-emphasized the exclusiveness of cultural influences on individual behavior and neglected inherited drives as an influence on decisions affecting family size. I wonder also if the population problem may not remain difficult because those cultural and genetic factors which cause some people to have more children than others tend to become predominant through the mechanism of natural selection.

Phillips H. Brown
University of Arkansas

EDWARD H. BOWMAN and ROBERT B. FETTER (eds.): *Analysis of Industrial Operations*. Homewood, Ill., Richard D. Irwin, Inc., 1959. 485 pages. \$7.95.

The reader familiar with *Analysis for Production Management* will find the authors' new book a natural follow-up. The same general-topic approach is used again. There are five major parts: "Application of Linear Programming,"

"Other Programming Applications," "Waiting Line Applications," "Applications of Incremental Analysis," and "Total Cost and Value Models."

This could be called a readings book, for it contains twenty-six carefully selected articles. The single variation from a typical book of readings is the inclusion at the start of each article of "some material designed to stimulate critical reflection and discussion of the article." These guides are a welcome extra.

The authors have done an unusually fine job of choosing articles which present a balanced approach. Their selections go far in meeting their objective: "While it is important for the student to understand the methods of analysis available to him, it is equally important that he understand something of the problems of their application. It is hoped that the study of the articles included here will give some insight into the simplifications, assumptions, method modifications, need for data, difficulties, action, and results associated with this work."

Anyone contemplating the use of this book as a text should think of it as an advanced text. Students should have had a previous course in analysis of operating problems. It can be recommended to any typical business-school faculty as a general orientation into the current use of quantitative methods in the analysis of operating problems of management. It should help to give a clearer understanding of the general direction of one section of management education.

Preston P. Le Breton
Louisiana State University

EARL RAAB and GERTRUDE JAEGER SELZNICK: *Major Social Problems*. Evanston, Ill., Row, Peterson & Company, 1959. 582 pages. \$6.50.

PAUL H. LANDIS: *Social Problems in Nation and World*. Chicago, J. B. Lippincott Co., 1950. 752 pages. \$6.50.

A social-problems text should deal not only with the diagnosis of problems but with their cause and cure. Moreover, these treatments should be placed within some larger theory of social behavior, such as social organization or social process, preferably both; that is, each problem is seen as the symptom of social (relations between people) or societal (conditions of society) reality. In this way, much of sociological theory can be used: Hobbes's problem of order; Malthus' population pressures; Marx's class antagonism and other strains within the distributive order; the functionalists' (Weber's, Durkheim's, Parsons's) focus on social integration through shared values and norms; Thomas' and Znaniecki's loss of control in urbanizing society; Cooley's and Mead's self vis-à-vis society; Merton's social structure and anomie; studies of change, power, manipulation, and alienation. And so on.

These two new books meet these standards better than most texts. The reader of the Raab-Selznick book is told what questions are being asked before the discussion starts. Sociological principles are consistently applied to problems, though without pointed footnoting. The vexing question of "causes" of problems is dealt with most clearly. The authors first outline the familiar causal

theories, giving most attention to "social disorganization," which they see dually in the inability of groups to transmit and enforce values and norms, and also as the conflict of rules and aspirations, especially when a subordinate group starts to raise its aspirations (e.g., race, women, labor). Thus social structure is seen as central both to order and to disorder. For each particular problem, several "alleged" causes are stated and subjected to evaluation. As to "cure" or "reform," much more is done than in any other text known to the reviewer. The specific problems dealt with are delinquency (done very clearly), crime, race, immigration, the family, the schools, dependency, and individuality. There are also selected readings. This is a wise book.

Landis' book contains virtually everything—except a systematic statement of his central assumptions and theory. Editing could have cut the some 500,000 words in half. Both materialistic and idealistic viewpoints are given, and the determined reader will find almost every hypothesis on social problems somewhere. The reviewer feels the chief substantive weakness occurs in the area of class and power: while there are good discussions of the pitfalls of social mobility for personality, there is little to show that entrenched class and power may perpetuate problem conditions, such as injustice and lack of freedom. One statement reads, for instance, "Wherever the machine goes, the worker becomes king." Landis is for reform and progress, mostly through technology, and assumes that everyone else—regardless of education, class, or rationality—is too. More explicit attention to values and assumptions—his

own and those of others—would be better scholarly form. The book's best feature is its supranational scope, dealing much with problems elsewhere, especially in the nonindustrialized countries. This is an encouraging trend for the sociology of the 1960's.

Warren Breed
Tulane University

NORMAN F. CANTOR: *Church, Kingship, and Lay Investiture in England, 1089-1135*. Princeton, Princeton University Press, 1958. 349 pages. \$6.00.

This useful and interesting work deals with the problem of lay investiture in England from the death of Langfranc through the pontificate of Anselm. The establishment of the Anglo-Norman Church polity in England following the Conquest resulted in firm control by the royal power over the ecclesiastical and gave a distinctive turn to the development of the English controversy over lay investiture. While much attention has been given to the Continental controversy, few scholars have analyzed the English problem in detail. This our author does, and establishes his findings and conclusions upon a firm foundation of scholarly research.

The essence of his thesis is that the death of Langfranc terminated the close co-operation which had existed between the King and Church. Under Anselm, friction developed and a determined effort was made to introduce Gregorian reforms into England, chief among which was the prohibition against lay investiture. Anselm, with his monastic, reforming background, found that in implementing his policy

he had the support of neither the English hierarchy nor indeed of Urban II. Only with the succession of Henry I to the English throne and Paschal II to that of Peter was the combination of personalities and international politics such that it was possible to effect the compromise of London, by which the king abandoned investiture with ring and staff and retained only the traditional feudal homage. From the point of view of the traditional Norman theory this was a significant concession since it implied the tacit abandonment of the king-priest concept of the Royal Power, though from a practical point of view retaining an effective royal veto over the appointment of any bishop or abbot.

Certain other features of the book deserve mention. The author includes a chapter on the problem of the authorship of the famous "Anonymous" of York in which he rejects the positions of Williams, Funk and Scherrinsky and comes out in favor of the single authorship of Archbishop Gerard of York. The evidence advanced on this point is on the whole persuasive. Likewise the author contends that the basis of the settlement reached at London is not to be found in the writings of Ivo of Chartres, Hugh of Fleury, or in the influence of Adela of Blois but rather in the opinions held by Henry's curiones, especially Robert of Meulan. In any event the London settlement antedated that of the Concordat of Worms by some fifteen years and thus undoubtedly influenced the Continental solution.

The significance of the period under discussion for the subsequent development of Church-State relations in England cannot be overemphasized. The author is right in concluding that the

failure to overthrow the Anglo-Norman polity during the eleventh and early twelfth centuries made inevitable the ultimate defeat of the reform pro-papal party under Thomas à Becket. Following that event the stream of Church-State relations, though on occasions turbulent, was to remain within well-established banks down to the Reformation. Both historians and political theorists are indebted to the author for his elucidation of a complex chapter in medieval history and especially for his ability to catch the spirit of the times and to make both his characters and events seem to live again for us.

H. Malcolm Macdonald
The University of Texas

REUBEN HILL, J. MAYONE STYCOS,
and KURT W. BACK: *The Family
and Population Control*. Chapel Hill,
University of North Carolina Press,
1959. 481 pages. \$8.00.

As every sociologist knows, one of the half-dozen greatest threats to the future of mankind is the population explosion going on in the world. This explosion is really a set of explosions taking place in some countries but not in others. These countries range in type from the United States to Communist and non-Communist underdeveloped areas.

One type of population explosion which has come to be regarded as almost axiomatic by demographers and which is as old as Western industrialism is that which occurs when a country is undergoing a transition from an agricultural-peasant society to an urban-industrial one. In such cases it has been observed that the death rate declines be-

fore the birth rate starts to decline and this brings a high rate of natural increase. Puerto Rico is in that kind of a transition now and the findings of this study, therefore, should have wide application in other areas which are, or will be, in such a transition.

This, however, is more than a mere research report. Using a family-study approach, it is a study of why the birth rate has not declined. On the basis of these findings an experiment was performed for the purpose of inducing a decline, and research was done to determine the results of the experiment. These findings were then translated into implications for government and non-government programs designed to reduce the birth rate. *In toto* it is a prototype of what this reviewer believes more sociological research projects should be. The day has long since passed when we could safely leave to amateurs the application of research findings.

The research methods and procedures reflect very careful planning in moving from one stage to another, and their execution reflects apparently quite adequate financing. This reviewer found much to admire and little to criticize in the techniques of the study and experiments.

Some of the findings are distinct contributions to demographic theory as well as to theory relating to folk or peasant societies. Demographers have in the past explained the failure of the birth rate to decline in this type of situation on the basis of the persistence of the large-family ideology, especially the pressures from the community and kinship groups to conform to this ideology. The unavailability of birth-control information and equipment were also thought to be important. In Puerto Rico

in the past these explanations have been given, plus the fact that most of the population are Catholic. In addition, it has been pointed out that the traditional culture placed a high value on masculinity (*machismo*) and that having many children was proof of the *machismo* of the husband. In contrast, this study shows that a large proportion of the population consider three children as the ideal family size, that a large proportion of the married couples have at some time used some kind of birth control, and that a larger proportion of the Protestants than of the Catholics profess to be morally opposed to birth control. The big obstacle to family planning seems to be that in the patriarchal family structure discussions between husband and wife are not customary with reference to any aspect of family life. Thus the practice of birth control is seldom jointly agreed upon by husband and wife.

One of the most striking findings is that female sterilization is one of the most commonly used forms of birth control. It is usually resorted to, however, after a large number of children have been born, and hence has little effect on the birth rate.

Some of the findings accord with demographers' theories of birth-control usage. The higher-income, better-educated, urban families practice birth control most consistently and successfully and are also the ones most likely to engage in joint family planning of all kinds.

The experiment consisted of programs and pamphlets designed to promote thinking about the advantages of small families and the value of joint family-planning in general. Contraceptive information was also included. The

results were checked by a study a year later which attempted to ascertain the proportion who had started practicing birth control and the rate of pregnancies compared with a control group. Favorable but not startling results were found.

This book is a full and detailed report, as it should be, on the research leading up to the experiment itself. As a result, much of it is pretty dull reading. Those interested primarily in the findings and recommendations can get these in relatively readable form from the first and the last two chapters. The other chapters and the lengthy appendix are recommended to those interested in research methods and to people suffering from insomnia.

The subject matter, the findings, and the implications of the findings of this study, will be of interest to many who are not sociologists. It is to be hoped that a layman's version will be made available for such people.

Harlan W. Gilmore
Tulane University

DAVID M. PLETCHER: *Rails, Mines, and Progress: Seven American Promoters in Mexico, 1867-1911*. Ithaca, Cornell University Press, 1958. 321 pages. \$5.50.

With a rare combination of felicitous style and thoroughgoing scholarship, Pletcher has produced a work to interest the general reader as well as the specialist in Latin-American affairs. Although he makes no pretense of having written a definitive study of United States economic penetration into Mexico during the Diaz dictatorship, he does feel that these studies of seven United States

business promoters of that era furnish us with a good cross section of American businessmen in Mexico. The seven include a Civil War general, a diplomat, a social reformer, an ex-President, a political boss, and a rancher.

These *laissez-faire* adventurers beheld a promised land in Mexico. They saw only what they wished to see, and what they thought they saw was largely a mirage. Only three of the seven succeeded to the extent that their businesses even produced a net profit, and none of these three "found and kept the wealth he sought." Pletcher sees their basic mistake as underestimating their problem, at times completely ignoring serious terrain difficulties in railroad building. Secondly, railroads built through northern Mexico to connect with the United States system did not tap producing or market areas, nor build enough spurs into mining districts. Finally, the promoters failed to perceive the increasing reluctance of the Mexican government by the 1890's to continue subsidization and uncontrolled freedom to foreign enterprises.

More unfortunate than the immediate failure of numerous United States financed businesses in Mexico was the legacy of anti-Americanism created by the activities of these promoters. Neither they nor the investing American public much concerned themselves with the poverty, distress, and degradation of the lower classes. Inspired primarily by the profit motive and heeding only the elite with whom they did business, they regarded the Madero revolt of 1910 and 1911 as merely another "family quarrel." The drive for deep-seated social, economic, and political reform was neither understood nor appreciated. Pletcher argues from the

experience that although the United States government should not intervene in other countries to establish political and social democracy, it "can no longer allow private business interests to establish durable economic alliances with native autocrats merely for the sake of short-term security and profits." Nor should the government itself make economic alliances with reactionary regimes for the sake of military benefits. If economic aid is given such regimes, "the policy should be clearly recognized as temporary expediency and abandoned as soon as possible."

T. H. Reynolds

Oklahoma A. and M. College

Other Books Received

December, 1959

Allen, William R., and Clark Allen: *Foreign Trade and Finance*. New York, The Macmillan Company, 1959. 500 pages. \$6.00.

Baumol, William J.: *Business Behavior Value and Growth*. New York, The Macmillan Company, 1959. 164 pages. \$4.75.

Beardsley, Richard K.: *Village Japan*. Chicago, University of Chicago, 1959. 500 pages. \$8.75.

Bierstedt, Robert: *The Making of Society* (rev. ed.). New York, Random House, Inc., 1959. 557 pages. \$1.65.

Bureau of Audio and Visual Aids: *General Science*. New York, University of New York, 1959. 37 pages. n.p.

Bureau of Social and Political Research: *The County Board of Supervisors*. East Lansing, Michigan State University, 1959. 152 pages. n.p.

- Bush, Robert R., and William K. Estes (eds.): *Studies in Mathematical Learning Theory*. Stanford, Stanford University Press, 1959. 432 pages. \$11.50.
- Cotner, Robert C.: *James Stephen Hogg*. Austin, University of Texas Press, 1959. 610 pages. \$7.50.
- Davis, Edwin Adams: *Louisiana: The Pelican State*. Baton Rouge, Louisiana State University Press, 1959. 356 pages. \$4.95.
- Denton, Eugene H.: *Extension of Municipal Services to Fringe Areas*. Lawrence, University of Kansas Press, 1959. 32 pages. n.p.
- DeSantis, Vincent P.: *Republicans Face the Southern Question*. Baltimore, The Johns Hopkins Press, 1959. 280 pages. \$5.00.
- Dovring, Karin: *Road of Propaganda*. New York, Philosophical Library, Inc., 1959. 158 pages. \$4.75.
- Edel, May: *Anthropology and Ethics*. Springfield, Ill., Charles C. Thomas, 1959. 250 pages. \$5.50.
- Eliasberg, W. G.: *Psycho-Therapy and Society*. New York, Philosophical Library, Inc., 1959. 223 pages. \$6.00.
- Free, Lloyd A.: *Six Allies and a Neutral*. Glencoe, Ill., The Free Press, 1959. 210 pages. \$5.00.
- Garfinkel, Herbert: *When Negroes March*. Glencoe, Ill., The Free Press, 1959. 222 pages. \$4.00.
- George, F. H.: *Automation, Cybernetics, and Society*. New York, Philosophical Library, Inc., 1959. 283 pages. n.p.
- Goldschmidt, Walter: *Man's Way*. New York, Henry Holt and Company, Inc., 1959. 253 pages. \$2.90.
- Heizer, Robert F. (ed.): *The Archaeologist at Work*. New York, Harper & Brothers, 1959. 520 pages. \$8.00.
- Hofstadter, Richard, William Miller, and Daniel Aaron: *The American Republic* (Vol. II). New Jersey, Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1959. 723 pages. \$6.95.
- Honigsmann, John J.: *The World of Man*. New York, Harper & Brothers, 1959. 972 pages. \$7.50.
- Hyde, George E.: *Indians of the High Plains*. Norman, University of Oklahoma Press, 1959. 228 pages. \$4.00.
- Hyneman, Charles S.: *The Study of Politics*. Urbana, University of Illinois Press, 1959. 232 pages. \$4.50.
- Kirksey, C. D.: *An Interindustry Study of the Sabine-Neches Area of Texas*. University of Texas, Bureau of Business Research, 1959. 141 pages. \$2.00.
- Korbel, Josef: *The Communist Subversion of Czechoslovakia*. Princeton, Princeton University Press, 1959. 256 pages. \$5.00.
- Korn, Noel, and Harry Reece Smith: *Human Evolution*. New York, Henry Holt and Company, Inc., 1959. 440 pages. \$5.50.
- Kurnow, Ernest, G. J. Glasser, and F. R. Ottman: *Statistics for Business Decisions*. Homewood, Ill., Richard D. Irwin, Inc., 1959. 523 pages. \$7.25.
- Larson, James E.: *How Cities Are Organized*. Alabama, University of Alabama Bureau of Public Administration, 1959. 34 pages. n.p.

- : *Criminal Caseload*. Informational Bulletin No. 15. Frankfort, Ky., Legislative Research Commission, 1957. 16 pages. n.p.
- : *Financial Administration of Office of Sheriff*. Informational Bulletin No. 22. Frankfort, Ky., Legislative Research Commission, 1959. 26 pages. n.p.
- : *Historical Development of Kentucky Courts*. Research Publication No. 63. Frankfort, Ky., Legislative Research Commission, 1959. 29 pages. n.p.
- : *Report of Advisory Committee on Judicial Department*. Informational Bulletin No. 21. Frankfort, Ky., Legislative Research Commission, 1958. 26 pages. n.p.
- : *Suffrage and Elections*. Frankfort, Ky., Legislative Research Commission, 1959. 100 pages. n.p.
- McLarney, William J.: *Management Training*. Homewood, Ill., Richard D. Irwin, Inc., 1959. 520 pages. \$6.75.
- Malone, Dumas: *The Autobiography of Thomas Jefferson*. New York, G. P. Putnam's Sons, 1959. 119 pages. \$2.50.
- Marotta, Michele: *Annali Economico Sociali Della Sardenga*, "Society and Man in Sardinia," Ser. 1, Vol. 1. Regione Autonoma Della Sardegna, Assessorato All'Industria, Comercio E. Rinascita, 1958. 415 pages. n.p.
- Marx, Fritz: *Elements of Public Administration*. 2d ed. New York, Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1959. 572 pages. \$6.95.
- Mason, Alpheus Thomas, and Richard H. Leach: *In Quest of Freedom*. New York, Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1959. 565 pages. \$9.25.
- Matthews, George T. (ed): *News and Rumor in Renaissance Europe: The Fugger Newsletters*. New York, G. P. Putnam's Sons, 1959. 253 pages. \$1.50.
- Menning, J. H., and C. W. Wilkinson: *Writing Business Letters*. Homewood, Ill., Richard D. Irwin, Inc., 1959. 610 pages. \$6.75.
- Miller, David L.: *Modern Science and Human Freedom*. Austin, University of Texas Press, 1959. 295 pages. \$6.00.
- Mortensen, Donald G., and Allen M. Schmuller: *Guidance in Today's Schools*. New York, John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1959. 437 pages. \$5.75.
- Olmsted, Frederick: *The Slave States*. New York, G. P. Putnam's Sons, 1959. 254 pages. \$2.50.
- Palmer, L. S.: *Man's Journey Through Time*. New York, Philosophical Library, Inc., 1959. 184 pages. n.p.
- Rhode, William E.: *Committee Clearance of Administrative Decisions*. Michigan State University, Bureau of Social and Political Research, 1959. 71 pages. n.p.
- Roucek, Joseph S.: *The Challenge of Science Education*. New York, Philosophical Library, Inc., 1959. 486 pages. \$10.00.
- School of Inter-American Studies: *Latin American Monograph*. Gainesville, Fla., University of Florida, 1959. n.p.
- Selltix, Claire, Marie Jahoda, Morton Deutsch, and Stuart W. Cook: *Research Methods in Social Relations*. New York, Henry Holt and Company, Inc., 1959. 618 pages. \$5.50.

- Shaw, George B.: *Adventures of the Black Girl in Her Search for God*. New York, G. P. Putnam's Sons, 1959. \$.95 (paper); \$2.50 (cloth).
- Snider, H. Wayne: *Readings in Property and Casualty Insurance*. Homewood, Ill., Richard D. Irwin, Inc., 1959. 542 pages. \$6.50.
- Steude, William L.: *The Lawyer in Michigan State Government*. Ann Arbor, University of Michigan, 1959. 65 pages. n.p.
- Welton, Harry: *The Third World War*. New York, Philosophical Library, Inc., 1959. 330 pages. \$6.00.
- Wentworth, Evelyn L.: *Election Statistics in Maryland 1934-1958*. College Park, University of Maryland, 1959. 80 pages. \$2.00.
- Whyte, William Foote: *Man and Organization*. Homewood, Ill., Richard D. Irwin, Inc., 1959. 104 pages. \$4.50.
- Zelditch, Morris, Jr.: *A Basic Course in Sociological Statistics*. New York, Henry Holt and Company. 370 pages. \$6.50.

L. S. U. Celebrates Centennial

Louisiana State University celebrates its one hundredth anniversary during 1959/60 with a series of events.

The Centennial observance formally began on October 22 with a two-day program dedicating the new \$3.5 million library, completed in 1958. Opening the dedication was a panel of university presidents discussing "The Importance of Higher Education." Speakers were DR. ARTHUR S. ADAMS, American Council on Education, chairman; DR. WILLIAM S. CARLSON, Uni-

versity of Toledo; DR. RUFUS HARRIS, Tulane University; DR. ROBERT M. STROZIER, Florida State University; and DR. LOGAN WILSON, University of Texas.

Programs throughout the school year include a series of banquets and symposia on commerce and industry, education, law and medicine, science and engineering, and agriculture; four lectures in a humanities series; and an address by U.S. SENATOR RUSSELL LONG of Louisiana.

News and Notes

Business Administration

University of Arkansas

PHILLIPS H. BROWN has been made a research associate of the Bureau of Business and Economic Research.

JAMES E. ESTES has been appointed assistant professor of management.

WILLIAM A. HEFFELFINGER, formerly assistant treasurer and comptroller, has joined the staff as an assistant economist at the Bureau of Business and Economic Research.

THOMAS M. SCHIEWETZ has been named lecturer in industrial management. He formerly was employed as a division manager for the Standard Register Company.

FRANKLIN S. WILLIAMS, formerly chairman of the Department of Pharmacy Administration in Little Rock, has become professor of marketing on the Fayetteville campus.

University of Houston

Promotions effective with the beginning of the current year are: SANFORD H. BROWN, to assistant professor of accounting; PAUL W. LINDLOFF, to associate professor of accounting; IRVING W. LUMPKIN, to assistant professor of business administration; WILLIAM A. OLSEN, to associate professor of business administration; JOEL W. SAILORS, to associate professor of economics and finance.

New appointments are: ARNOLD M. BARBAN, University of Texas, as instructor of marketing and advertising; NORMAN F. BYERS, Northwestern Uni-

versity, assistant professor of economics and finance; BILLY J. HODGE, Louisiana State University, assistant professor of management; MILTON F. USRY, JR., assistant professor of accounting.

University of Missouri

FREDERICK E. MAY, formerly of the University of Michigan, has been named assistant professor of marketing.

ROBERT WACKER PATTERSON, formerly of the University of South Carolina, has assumed the position of professor and director of the Bureau of Business and Economic Research.

DONALD L. SHAWVER, professor of marketing, has taken a year's leave to accept a Ford Foundation fellowship for work with the Institute of Basic Mathematics for Application to Business.

DON R. WEBB, instructor in marketing, has taken leave to resume graduate study at the University of Indiana.

New Mexico Highlands University

MAX R. SANCHEZ, graduating senior, ranked first among New Mexico competitors and in the ninety-ninth percentile on national norms in a competition for achievement awards offered by the New Mexico Society of Certified Public Accountants.

Phillips University

The staff of the Division of Business Administration has been reorganized as follows: HARRY BISHLINE, economics; ROBERT N. GRAY, accounting, marketing and management; NIKLOS SZUCS

NICOLSON, chairman; HAZEL NOLAND, secretarial science and business education.

St. Mary's University

GEORGE S. KOHNEN, S.M., is dean of the newly established School of Business Administration. Chairmen of departments are: accounting, GEORGE MALACEK, S.M.; economics, L. H. MAI; finance, FRANK A. RILEY; management, J. M. K. YOUNGBLOOD; marketing, PAUL C. GOELZ, S.M.

University of Texas

VIRGIL A. JAMES has announced that the Executive Seminar will be held at Bar-K Ranch in a series of four four-day sessions in October, November, February, and April. The Executive Development program will be held at Villa Camille, near Hunt, Texas, during March 14-April 14.

E. C. LYNCH has been promoted to assistant professor.

K. W. OLM served as co-ordinator for a management lecture series for credit-union personnel, October 26-November 11.

W. H. WATSON and ROBERT F. PECK, educational psychology, were in charge of an organization and human-relations seminar for postal employees at the Bar-K Ranch September 27-October 3.

JOHN BICKLEY, formerly of Ohio State University, is the new head of the insurance program.

CHARLES T. CLARK, formerly director of nonacademic employment, is assistant professor of statistics.

RALPH L. DAY, formerly of the University of North Carolina, is assistant professor of marketing.

JOHN DODSON has been made assistant to the dean of the College.

CHARLES W. TAYLOR, from Memphis State College, is assistant professor of accounting.

W. THOMAS TUCKER, from Georgia State College, has been made an associate professor of marketing.

Promotions announced at the beginning of the year are STANLEY A. ARBINGAST to professor of resources; W. H. BAUGHN to associate dean of the College; ROBERT LEE GRINAKER to associate professor of accounting; EUGENE W. NELSON to professor of business law; BURNARD H. SORD to associate professor of management; JOHN ARCH WHITE as dean of the College.

Leaves have been granted to C. P. BLAIR, to serve for the year as visiting professor at the University of Nuevo León, Mexico; FRANCIS B. MAY, to serve as visiting professor at the University of Minnesota during the second semester.

University of Wichita

WILLIAM F. CRUM, professor of accounting, will serve as secretary to the fifth Annual Conference on Petroleum Accounting, to be held in May, 1960.

Xavier University

Two one-day business workshops are being sponsored by the University during this semester. Morning sessions are devoted to discussion and consultation in investments and insurance; afternoon sessions are designed to interest executive secretaries.

Economics

Kansas State Teachers College (Pittsburg)

MORRIS L. STEVENS has joined the staff of the Senate Committee on Bank-

ing and Currency, under sponsorship of SENATOR WILLIAM PROXMIRE, to make a study of monetary policies of the Federal Reserve System, with particular reference to inflation and levels of employment.

New Mexico Highlands University

VIRGINIA BISHOP SLOAN, in charge of work in economics in the Department of Business Administration since 1954, has been promoted to the rank of professor.

Northwestern State College of Louisiana

PHILIP DURIEZ has joined the staff as an assistant professor.

Park College (Missouri)

JOSEPH A. BILLINGS has been named assistant professor of economics and business administration. He has served as head of the Business Department of the University of Corpus Christi and previously taught at Mexico City College and Laredo Junior College. He holds two degrees from Mexico City College and has also studied at the Sorbonne and the University of Texas.

Rice Institute

EDGAR O. EDWARDS, formerly associate professor at Princeton, has been made Hargrove Professor of Economics.

LESLIE WRIGHT, of the University of Edinburgh, is a visiting lecturer during the fall semester on a Whitney-Fulbright award.

Southern Methodist University

WALTER H. DELAPLANE has been made dean of the College of Arts and Sciences and professor of economics. He formerly held a similar position at

Texas Agricultural and Mechanical College.

PAUL GEREN, former vice-president of Baylor University, has become professor of economics and director of the Dallas Council on World Affairs.

DAVID FAND, from the Institute of Statistics at the University of North Carolina, has been named associate professor.

PAUL T. HOMAN, formerly professor at the University of California, has accepted a similar position at Southern Methodist.

I. JAMES PIKL, of Vanderbilt, has been named an assistant professor.

Texas Technological College

LESTER S. LEVY has been promoted to associate professor.

ROY SAMPSON has resigned to accept the position of assistant professor of business administration at the University of Oregon.

University of New Mexico

ROBERT E. L. KNIGHT has joined the staff as an assistant professor.

NATHANIEL WOLLMAN is on leave for the current year, serving as a consultant on water resources to Resources for the Future, Inc., of Washington, D.C.

University of Texas

RUTH A. ALLEN, who has served the Department for more than a quarter-century, assumed the status of professor emeritus at the beginning of the academic year.

L. MARIO BELOTTI has resigned to take a position as assistant professor at Santa Clara University (California).

E. E. HALE retired as chairman of the Department after having served in that

capacity since 1930. He will continue as professor.

PETER F. M. McLOUGHLIN has taken a position as lecturer at the University of Khartoum, Sudan.

BYRON WHITE has accepted appointment as associate professor at Arlington State College.

Geography

Northwestern State College of Louisiana

GEORGE A. STOKES, author of "Log Rafting in Louisiana" (*Journal of Geography*, February, 1959), is serving as chairman of the social sciences division of the Louisiana Academy of Sciences. He conducted a National Science Foundation institute for teachers of earth sciences during the summer session.

Southwestern Louisiana Institute

VERNON BEHRHORST has been appointed executive secretary of the Louisiana Intracoastal Seaway Association.

Government

Kansas State Teachers College (Pittsburg)

ALVIN H. PROCTOR, formerly chairman of the Department of Social Science, has been made dean of Graduate Studies.

RICHARD C. WELTY has been promoted to associate professor.

Kansas State University

A \$500 annual scholarship, in honor of Ed McCoy, for a political science upperclass major has been established.

Southwestern Louisiana Institute

CONRAD JOYNER was a participant in the Citizenship Clearing House Conference on Teaching Politics, held at Hershey, Pennsylvania, in September.

University of Missouri

MINOO DORAB ADENWALLA has resigned to develop a program in Asian affairs at Lawrence College.

RICHARD ABERNETHY WATSON has assumed the position of associate director of the Bureau of Government Research. He formerly was research associate of the Cleveland Metropolitan Services Commission.

University of Texas

RONALD F. BUNN and JAMES R. SOUKUP have been promoted to the rank of assistant professor.

WILLIAM S. LIVINGSTON is on research leave for the year studying political processes in England. ALLEN M. POTTER, of the University of Manchester, will serve as his replacement during the second semester.

STUART A. MACCORKLE has extended his leave of absence through the year to continue work in organizing the School of Public Administration of the University of Seoul.

MELVIN P. STRAUSS has resigned to accept a position at San Jose State College.

EDWARD TABORSKY will take leave for the second semester to accept a Guggenheim fellowship. He will work on Czechoslovakian problems of government.

WILFRED D. WEBB is a visiting professor at Duke University for the first semester. FREDERICK C. IRION, of the University of New Mexico, is his replacement.

History

Kansas State Teachers College (Pittsburg)

DUDLEY T. CORNISH has been appointed acting chairman of the Department of Social Science, succeeding ALVIN H. PROCTOR, who has become dean of Graduate Studies.

Kansas State University

WERNER H. BARTH and HOMER E. SOCOLOFSKY have been promoted to the position of associate professor.

CHARLES N. GLAAB has been appointed assistant professor.

PHILIP M. RICE has been appointed head of the Department.

Kansas History in Graduate Study—A Bibliography of Theses and Dissertations, edited by HOMER E. SOCOLOFSKY, was published in July, 1959.

Southwestern Louisiana Institute

ROBERT M. ALBERT, from the University of Illinois, has joined the staff as an assistant professor.

PAUL K. CONKLIN has resigned to accept a position at the University of Maryland as an assistant professor.

ROBERT R. MILLER, from the University of California, has been made an assistant professor.

University of Denver

CALVIN D. DAVIS, from the University of Indiana, has joined the staff.

An American Studies program leading to the Ph.D. degree has been inaugurated. National Defense Act fellowships are available to students with the M.A. degree. Information on the program may be secured from Allen D. Breck, chairman of the Department.

University of Oklahoma

HERBERT J. ELLISON taught at the University of Washington during the spring and summer terms.

GILBERT C. FITE taught at the University of Illinois during the summer term.

W. EUGENE HOLLON has returned after teaching in Peru on a Fulbright award.

SYDNEY I. PLOSS, of Brooklyn College, served as a visiting professor during the summer.

HANS A. SCHMITT has resigned to join the staff of Tulane University.

ALFRED B. SEARS taught at the University of Kentucky during the summer.

University of Texas

R. DAVIS BITTON, from Princeton University, has joined the staff as an instructor.

WILLIAM R. BRAISTED has been promoted to associate professor.

JOE B. FRANTZ has been promoted to the rank of professor and appointed chairman of the Department.

MICHAEL G. HALL, formerly of the Institute of Early American History and Culture, has been added to the staff as an assistant professor.

LEWIS U. HANKE has received a research grant from the University to continue his studies of the Potosi mines in Bolivia.

JOHN HUGH HILL, of Texas Agricultural and Mechanical College, is serving as visiting professor, replacing A. R. Lewis, who is spending a year in New England libraries on an American Council of Learned Societies grant.

STANFORD E. LEHMBERG and JOHN E. SUNDER have been promoted to the rank of assistant professor.

OTIS A. SINGLETARY has been advanced to the rank of associate professor and appointed associate dean of the College of Arts and Sciences in charge of student affairs.

Social Science

Central Missouri State College

A new general-education program has been inaugurated and will be required of most students. The curriculum includes four hours of social science, four of world civilization, three of American history, and a two-hour junior-senior course in American democracy. A graduate course will study materials in the Truman Library in Independence in Saturday sessions.

Kansas State Teachers College (Emporia)

JAMES H. BUCHANAN has taken a two-year leave to accept an administrative assignment at the University of Peshawar, Pakistan.

ROBERT MARDOCK spent the summer in Colorado on a research project.

HAROLD V. SARE has had two articles in *Emporia State Research Studies*, "Nehru and the Rise of the Modern State of India," and "Background and Academic Preparation of Social Science Teachers in the High Schools of Kansas, 1956-57."

WILLIAM H. SEILER has been made chairman of the Division of Social Studies.

GLEN E. TORREY, from the University of Oregon, and Carlton H. Bowyer, from the University of Missouri, are new faculty members.

Sociology

Kansas State Teachers College (Pittsburg)

ROBERT R. NOBLE has been named by Governor George Docking to membership on the Steering Committee for the White House Conference on Children and Youth. He will serve as chairman of the subcommittee on fact-finding of that general committee, and has set up numerous committees to originate and process data.

Louisiana State University

ALVIN L. BERTRAND is vice-president of the Southern Sociological Society and is chairman of its Committee on the Profession.

RUDOLF HEBERLE, Boyd Professor, has been elected president of the American Studies Association of the Lower Mississippi.

GEORGE A. HILLERY, visiting assistant professor, has accepted a postdoctoral fellowship under which he will conduct community research at the University of Florida during 1959/60.

WALFRID J. JOKINEN has been promoted to associate professor. He will continue as assistant dean of the Graduate School.

JOHN D. KELLEY has been appointed an instructor.

ROLAND J. PELLEGRIN, chairman of the Department of Sociology and head of the Department of Rural Sociology, has been promoted to professor.

JOHN V. D. SAUNDERS, formerly of Mississippi State University, has accepted an appointment as assistant professor after a year as a Fulbright fellow

in the University of Guayaquil and Central University in Quito.

Northwestern State College of Louisiana

ROBERT C. TROUT, of Louisiana Polytechnic Institute, was a visiting professor for the summer.

ORA V. WATSON spent three months in Europe, attending the International Population Conference in Vienna and the fourth World Congress of Sociology in Milan and Stresa.

Texas A. and M.

R. L. SKRABANEK, with LOUIS J. DUCOFF, is author of *Social Security and the Texas Farmer*, published by the Texas Agricultural Experiment Station. The 18-page bulletin presents results of an interview study of 250 farmers in two Texas counties in 1956.

University of Arkansas

FRANZ ADLER will serve as visiting lecturer at the University of California at Davis during the current year, taking over the teaching duties of EDWIN M. LEMERT, Department chairman on sabbatical leave.

University of Kansas

E. JACKSON BAUR has been promoted to professor. Under grants from the University General Research Fund he is studying the social adjustment of undergraduate students, and with CHARLES K. WARRINER he is studying public opinion and social organization of the residents of the Kansas river basin.

LAWRENCE S. BEE is author of the recently published textbook *Marriage*

and Family Relations. He was a visiting professor during the summer at Oregon State College.

CARROLL D. CLARK, chairman, was a member of the (Chadron) Nebraska State Teachers College staff in June and July.

RAY P. CUZZORT won an Elizabeth Watkins Research Grant for the past summer.

ROBERT DENTLER has joined the staff as research associate in the Institute for Child Research in the School of Education. From time to time he will teach courses in the Sociology and Anthropology Department.

E. GORDON ERICKSEN worked in St. Lucia, Barbados, and Granada of the Lesser Antilles in August and September, completing his field research on fertility expectations to be included in *The Population of the West Indies Federation*.

EVERETT C. HUGHES, of the Department of Sociology, University of Chicago, was the Judge Nelson Timothy Stephens lecturer in the School of Law and presented three lectures on the subject "Stress and Strain in Teaching and Learning." He also gave the Lindley Memorial lecture on the topic "Quality and Equality: American Enterprises and Experiments in Education." He will be the Rose Morgan honorary professor for the fall semester.

CLARENCE DALE JOHNSON, from St. Olaf College, joined the staff in September as an instructor.

CARLYLE S. SMITH spent the summer in the Dakotas in archaeological excavations of Northern Plains Indians, leading a group of graduate students. A new book, *The Archaeologist at Work*, edited by ROBERT F. HEIZER,

contains an article by SMITH entitled "Reconstructing a Plains Indian Earth Lodge."

ROBERT U. SQUIER was co-author with senior authors PHILIP DRUCKER and ROBERT F. HEIZER, University of California, of the research monograph "Excavations at LaVenta, Tobasco, 1955." He acted as co-editor with DR. HEIZER in the preparation of the text as a whole. A popularized version of this 312-page volume appeared in the September, 1956, issue of *National Geographic*.

CHARLES K. WARRINER, associate professor, returned in August from the Philippine Islands where, under a Fulbright award, he made a study of leadership among the Moros.

The concluding chapter of a monograph on the drinking experiences of Kansas high-school students, by MARSTON M. MCCLUGGAGE, E. JACKSON BAUR, CARROLL D. CLARK, and CHARLES K. WARRINER has been reprinted in *Drinking and Intoxication*, a book of readings edited by RAYMOND G. MCCARTHY.

University of Texas

HENRY A. BOWMAN has been advanced to the rank of professor. He is author of *A Christian Interpretation of Marriage*, published by Westminster Press early in 1959.

CLETUS BRADY has been appointed instructor.

LEONARD BROOM has assumed his duties as chairman of the Department. He formerly was chairman at the University of California, Los Angeles, and served some years as editor of *American Sociological Review*.

RICHARD M. COLVARD has been promoted to the rank of assistant professor.

WALTER I. FIREY, newly advanced to the rank of professor, is on leave for the year to study at the Center for Advanced Study in Social Science, at Stanford.

JACK P. GIBBS, from the University of California, Berkeley, has joined the staff as an assistant professor.

REESE MCGEE, LEONARD BROOM, and GIDEON SJOBERG read papers at the annual meeting of the American Sociological Society in September. SJOBERG also presided over two sessions in urban sociology.

The September, 1959 (Vol. 40, No. 2), issue of this QUARTERLY is *out of print*. Through error, barely enough copies were printed to supply the subscribers. We will be happy to buy back, at subscription prices, a stock of this issue. If you have a copy of Vol. 40, No. 2 (September, 1959) which you would sell for \$1.25, please write the Editor.

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